

ANNUAL REPORT  
ON  
ADMINISTRATION  
OF CHOSŒN  
1930

Compiled by  
Government-General of ChosŒn  
Keijo, December, 1931

### Errata

- P. 31. line 22. for "Kango"  
read "Kongo"
- P. 43. last line. for Ordinary Revenue of 1931  
read 200 million instead of  
100 million
- P. 45. In Grand Total of 1931 Budget  
read 200 million instead of  
100 million

*With the Compliments of*

*The Government-General of Chosen.*





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Editor :  
FOREIGN AFFAIRS SECTION

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General Ugaki,  
Governor-General.



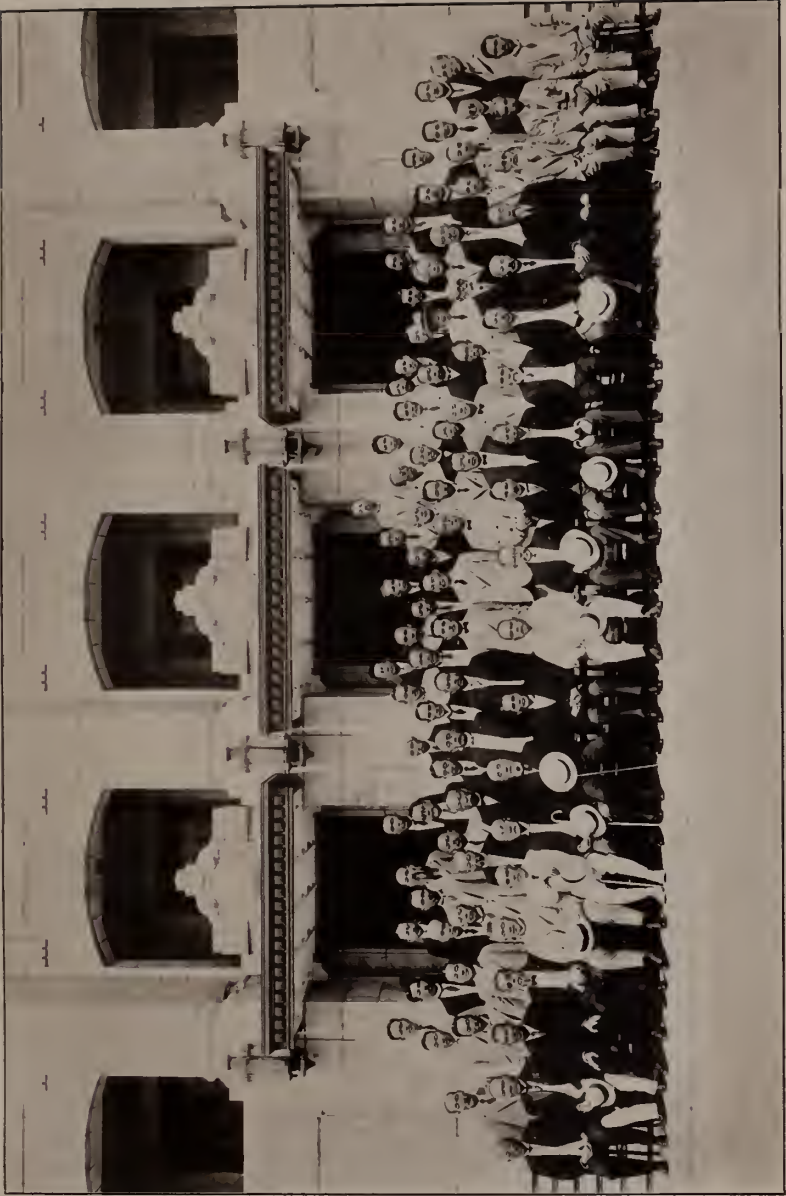
Mr. Imaida,  
Vice Governor-General





3. Government-General Offices.





4. Members of Central Council, the Advisory Body of the Governor-General.





5. Queen's Pavilion in the Secret Garden, East Palace, Keijo.



6. Chugoro (Summer Pavilion) in the Secret Garden, East Palace, Keijo.







7. West Lake at Suigen, the irrigation reservoir for paddy fields  
of Government Experimental Station.



## PREFACE

This book is an attempt to set forth the progress of Chosen during the twenty years of the Japanese regime with particular reference to the past twelve months. In arrangement the book follows the order of the official report published by the Government General in the Japanese language to which enquirers for fuller details are referred. This English version is not a literal translation of the official report, and certain points, for example those of topographical interest, have been inserted in order to make the book more useful in introducing the country to the traveller coming here in search of more general information, while at the same time all the essential data necessary to the serious student have been carefully preserved. The realization of the fact that this book is intended to serve these two purposes will disarm the criticism of the serious student of politics, who has been following this report year by year and complains of the inevitable repetition. This volume covers the administration during the fiscal year 1930 with the result that certain statistics are given for the calendar year while others are given for the end of Fiscal year, viz. March, 1931. There are certain aspects of progress in Chosen which do not come within the scope of this survey which in intention only covers activities controlled by the Government General. Some of these, for example the work of the missionary churches, have been mentioned *passim*, but no mention is made of many other marks of advance and the many developments of culture in the artistic and literary world, all of which are the indirect results of the peaceful regime brought to the country by a succession of Governors General and vice-Governors General under the benign influence of His Imperial Majesty the Emperor.

The impartial observer will not deny that the Japanese Government may justly be proud of its achievements in this country. The current year has given notable proof of the desire of the Government

to meet the spirit of the times with a generous bestowal of local autonomy, the details of which will be given in the next annual report. This act marked the climax of the regime under Viscount Makoto Saito. After a long period of devoted labour, his resignation this year on account of failing health was graciously accepted by the Throne.

Under the present Governor General, H. E. General Ugaki, the country may look forward to further development and consolidation.

December. 1931.

# I. GENERAL REMARKS

---

## 1. History of Japanese Régime

Chosen, one of the oldest countries of the Orient, was once a greatly advanced nation from which Japan learned many arts and crafts in her ancient days. But as to political independence, it seems she never enjoyed it to any considerable extent. For centuries before Japan came to interfere in her national affairs she was virtually held subject to China, paying tribute to Peking and receiving Chinese envoys from it. Being placed between powerful neighbours, Japan to the east and China to the west, she had a difficult part to play through her long history, and striving for better connection with the stronger party she always followed a vacillating course which at times led to rupture of peace between her neighbours. Her weakness finally made her a bone of international contention and she became one of the storm centres of the Far East.

Chosen and Japan facing each other across a narrow strip of water have been in close connection from time immemorial with homogeneity of race and culture. Yet until sixty years ago they were in no condition to improve their ancient traditional intercourse in spite of the vital interests they had in common. On the restoration of the Imperial régime in 1868, Japan showed herself anxious to keep up friendly relations with Chosen by frequently sending envoys on that mission. At that time the Korean King was still a minor and the government was in the grip of the Taiwonkun, the Regent, who obstinately maintained a policy of seclusion and turned a deaf ear to Japan's friendly approaches. After prolonged and patient negotiations, however, Japan succeeded in 1876 in entering into a treaty of amity and commerce with her, and her

example being followed by other powers, Chosen at length took on the semblance of an independent country.

By this time the Korean King had attained his majority and taken the reins of government into his own hands, and with it the family of Min from which his consort came gained the ascendancy, so that there was a constant scramble for power between her family and the conservative party headed by the Taiwonkun. Seizing the opportunity thus afforded to extend her influence over the peninsula, China took sides with the Queen's clan, and this twice led to the Japanese Legation and residents in Keijo being attacked by Korean mobs and Chinese soldiery. Toward the end of 1884 the Reform Party under the leadership of Pak Yeng Hyo planned to overthrow the Cabinet as well as the dominant Min family and to set up a new government, but their radical movement was quickly frustrated by the intervention of a Chinese force.

In 1885 the Tien-tsin treaty was concluded between China and Japan, and it was stipulated that both should withdraw their troops from Korean soil, and that should either of the contracting parties be required to despatch troops to Chosen the fact was to be notified to the other. In 1894 the famous Tonghak rebellion broke out in the country, and the Korean Government, aware of its inability to suppress the insurrection, appealed to China for help. China at once moved troops into Chosen in disregard of the Tien-tsin treaty on the pretext of protecting her dependency. Japan, not recognizing China's suzerainty over Chosen, lodged a strong protest against such high-handed action, and receiving no satisfaction sent a force for the protection of her own representatives and residents. In the gravity of the situation the Korean authorities saw the folly they had been guilty of in inviting China's support at the expense of national independence, and approached Japan for aid in expelling the Chinese soldiers from the country. Japan and China thus came into collision which started a war between the two nations. Victory rested with Japan and peace was signed at Shimonoseki in 1895, by which the Chinese claim on Chosen was renounced and Korean independence



fully recognized.

Chosen might have embraced the opportunity now presented to make herself strong and really independent but did not. On the contrary, her politicians took to perpetual intrigues, and frequent were the changes in the Government. Things went from bad to worse until she was completely swayed by Russian influence. Indeed, the power of the Russians at this time was so great that it seemed that they were in complete control. For instance, they held the right to exploit the forests along the Yalu, train Korean troops, and control strategic ports in the peninsula, while at the same time they acquired the lease of Port Arthur and Dalny, followed by the virtual occupation of Manchuria, and gradually assembled a force on the Korean frontier regions to engage in military manoeuvres there. As time went on, the Russian policy toward the East grew more and more aggressive, being bent on absorbing the Korean peninsula, and as this constituted a great menace to the safety of Japan, Japan demanded evacuation of Manchuria by Russia, but the latter refused it in defiance of treaty obligations, and lengthy negotiation brought no hope of amicable settlement between the two. At last, Japan, staking all on the throw, was compelled to fight the mighty "bear" of the West, not for conquest but for the preservation of Korean territorial integrity as well as for the safeguarding of herself. This took place in 1904. In the Portsmouth treaty of 1905 that ended the war, Russia acknowledged Japan's paramount interests, political and otherwise, in Chosen, and pledged herself not to interfere with any measures Japan might take in behalf of Chosen.

Though Japan was always ready to lend a helping hand to Chosen in the maintenance of her independence and in the promotion of her welfare, Chosen was utterly unable to stand on her own feet owing to long years of misgovernment, official corruption, and popular degeneration, and was ever tottering to her fall under foreign pressure. So it appeared more than likely she would become the hotbed of incessant trouble in the Far East, and in view

of the situation Japan came to the conclusion that the best way to save Chosen was by making her a Japanese protectorate. In November, 1905, following on the conclusion of the Russo-Japanese War, a treaty was signed to that end between Chosen and Japan, and in the following year the Residency-General was established to look after the affairs of the peninsular kingdom.

Prior to this, Chosen was bound by the Protocol of February, 1904, to adopt Japan's advice in regard to administration, internal and external, and, under the agreement signed in August of that year, engaged Baron Megata as financial adviser and Mr. Stevens, an American, as diplomatic adviser, both on the recommendation of the Japanese Government. On the establishment of the Protectorate, Prince Ito, one of the greatest statesmen of modern Japan, was appointed first Resident-General. He devoted himself heart and soul to the task of assisting Chosen to reform herself and thereby advance her national well-being.

It was not easy, however, to extirpate at once all the deep-rooted evils besetting Chosen, and there were still many Koreans who refused to see the good intent actuating Japan, and these secretly engaged in concocting anti-Japanese schemes, which culminated in the assassination of Mr. Stevens by Korean malcontents in San Francisco in March, 1907, and the dispatch of a Korean delegation to the Hague Peace Conference in June of the same year without the knowledge of Japan. Prince Ito, therefore, deemed it necessary to tighten the hold of Japan on her protégé and concluded a further agreement with her in which it was set forth in unmistakable terms that all important measures, legislative and executive, were to be subject to the approval of the Resident-General, and that Japanese were to be appointed to responsible posts in the Korean Government. Under this new agreement a reform was effected in all branches of administration, and many Japanese were taken into the government service to work side by side with the Koreans. A clear line of distinction was drawn between Court and Government and between the judiciary and the



executive, thus removing the root of so many evils, while unconditional loans were made to the Korean Government to enable it to meet the increased expenditure. Later on the management of Korean justice and prisons was delegated to Japan to secure the more effective protection of life and property in the country. In introducing these reforms a great many obstacles had to be surmounted; for there were still found not a few men in authority to whom the change from the old to the new order of things was most unwelcome.

All this while peace and order in the country was far from assured, for insurgents or brigands were infesting the provinces and the people in general lived in a continuous state of unrest and alarm. In October, 1909, Prince Ito fell a victim to an assassin at Harbin while *en route* for Europe. Misconception on the part of those whom he loved was the cause of all this. A few months later Yi Wan Yong, Korean prime minister, was attacked and seriously injured in Keijo by another Korean fanatic. These events made it plain that the protectorate régime would not work well with all its good intention and efforts, and it became evident that nothing remained, if the best and permanent interests of Chosen were to be secured and enjoyed, but her amalgamation with Japan. This idea had for some time past been entertained by men of light and leading in Chosen, and above all, the Ilchin Hoi, a great political party composed of the intellectual class and representative of public opinion at the time, strongly advocated the union of the two countries and memorialized both Governments, urging it as the most advisable action to be taken for the real benefit of both peoples. The consensus of public opinion in Japan was also found in favour of the step, so the Japanese Cabinet, coming to a final decision, approached the Korean Government on the subject, and a treaty of annexation between Japan and Chosen was signed on the 22nd of August, 1910, and was duly recognized by the world at large.

The Treaty consists of a preamble and eight articles providing

for the transfer of Korean sovereignty, treatment of the Korean Imperial Household, protection of life and liberty of the Koreans and advancement of their welfare, and appointment of Koreans as officials. At the same time that the treaty was published the Korean Emperor promulgated a mandate admonishing his people to conform to the spirit and aim of the annexation which was prompted by absolute necessity.

In consequence of the annexation the treaties that Japan had concluded with other powers automatically included Chosen, now an integral part of Japan, making void all the treaties and conventions signed between Chosen and foreign nations, but Japan sent a manifesto to her treaty powers announcing that the foreign rights acquired under the Korean Government would be duly respected, especially with regard to the existing Customs which would be left as they were for the next ten years.

Upon the conclusion of the treaty of annexation the Japanese Emperor was pleased to promulgate an Imperial Rescript giving the reason for the event and expressing his love for the Korean people. He accorded the Korean Imperial family treatment due to the Japanese Imperial family and settled on it the same amount of income previously received by it for its maintenance. An office was established for the management of the Household, and near relatives and some meritorious persons were made peers. The sum of 30,000,000 *yen* was donated by Imperial bounty to Chosen for distribution among various social and charitable works, while remission of taxes was granted to needy people and a general amnesty was extended to convicted prisoners.

For the administration of the new territory the organization of the Government-General was established. and at the same time the name of the country was changed from Tai-Han, adopted in 1897, back to Chosen. Count Terauchi was then appointed first Governor-General and Mr. I. Yamagata, son of the great Prince Yamagata, Civil Superintendent. During the years following the annexation the authorities have been energetically introducing and carry-

ing on many reforms along all lines of human activity, and the progress attained by the country under Japanese rule is by no means insignificant, though not accomplished wholly without blunders. In short, the new régime brought with it many of the advantages of modern civilized life to the Korean people.

Great as the improvement effected in the administration of Chosen was, the change in the times following the World War, necessitated a readjustment of the entire administrative system so as to fit it to new conditions, and plans for that purpose were in the process of being formed when in March, 1919, disturbances suddenly broke out in different parts of the country, and for some months the Government found itself fully occupied in restoring order, but it was possible to carry out the contemplated reforms in August the same year, and the re-organization of the Government-General became an accomplished fact. Among the new departures initiated, the most significant was that the post of Governor-General, hitherto open to a military man only, was thrown open to all, and next was the adoption of a police system similar to that in the homeland, thus superseding the former system which had gendarmes as its main force and was subject to much adverse comment abroad. Mr. Hara, the premier, in announcing these important reforms, declared it was the Government's intention to do its best to secure all the benefit possible from them, and by so doing raise Chosen to the same level as Japan herself.

## **2. New Policy following The Administrative Reforms**

A sweeping change was then effected in the personnel of the Government-General, General Hasegawa, Governor-General, and I. Yamagata, Civil Superintendent, resigned and their posts were filled by Baron Saito and Dr. Midzuno respectively. Baron Saito had long distinguished himself as a minister of state, while Dr. Midzuno had held a ministerial portfolio in the late Cabinet, and it was

expected that both would prove equal to the trust placed in them that they would fulfil the great task. The new Governor-General, on assumption of office, made announcement of his new policy to the entire country, and stated that a liberal and righteous administration would be established in the peninsula in obedience to the august wishes of His Majesty, and urged both officials and people to united efforts for the achievement of the ideals set forth in the Imperial Rescript.

The principles upon which the reforms were based were: stabilization of peace and order, deference to public opinion, abatement of officialism, reform in administration, improvement of general living, and advancement of popular culture and welfare. And to accomplish these essential points definite plans were drawn up regarding the following:

Non-discrimination between Japanese and Koreans.

Simplification of laws and regulations.

Promptness in conducting State business.

Decentralization of power.

Revision of local organization.

Respect for native culture and customs.

Freedom of speech, meeting, and press.

Spread of education and development of industry.

Completion of police force.

Expansion of medical and sanitary organs.

Guidance of popular thought.

Opportunity for men of talent.

Friendly feeling between Japanese and Koreans.

### 3. Physiography

Chosen or Korea is a peninsula extending southward from the north-east of Asia and forms part of the Japanese Empire. It is washed on the east and west by the Sea of Japan and the Yellow Sea, and adjoins Manchuria and the Maritime Province on the north,

the border being marked by the rivers Yalu and Tumen and the Ever-White Mountains, whence these streams run in opposite directions, while on the south it faces the west of Japan across the Korea Strait with the island of Tsushima about midway. It lies between the parallels of  $33^{\circ}06'$  and  $43^{\circ}$  north and  $124^{\circ}11'$  and  $130^{\circ}56'$  east, and has an area of 220,741 square kilometers (85,228 square miles) constituting about one-third the area of the Empire.

Sea-girt on three sides, Chosen has a long coast line of 8,674 kilometers islands excluded. The east coast is but slightly indented and is consequently possessed of few good harbours other than Gensan and Seishin. The south and west coasts are, on the contrary, deeply indented and for the most part fringed with islands and islets and contain many good harbours, such as Fusan, Reisui, Mokpo, Jinsen, Chinnampo, etc. The difference between high and low tide is very marked on the west coast, notably in the vicinity of Jinsen where it reaches ten metres while on the east coast near Gensan it is less than half a metre.

The country is largely mountainous. From the "Ever-White" Mountains which stretch along the Manchurian border, a lofty range runs southward and, after separating the northern provinces of Heian and Kankyo, takes a course near the east coast until it slopes down to meet the southern coast and so forms the backbone and watershed of the peninsula. This spinal deviation from the central line makes the eastern side steep and rockbound and devoid of plains and rivers deserving the name, whereas the opposite side, though broken by many lateral spurs, slopes more gently and often merges into open, fertile valleys, traversed by large rivers such as the Daido, Kan, Kin, Rakuto, etc. Dividing the country into two unequal parts, the south and north, the former is fairly level and agricultural, but the latter is hilly and rich in timber and minerals, thus holding more potentialities for industrial development.

The Korean climate is continental and runs to the extreme in cold and heat. Spring and autumn are each short but delightful seasons. In general the climate is comparatively mild in the south



but rigorous in the north. While there is no considerable diversity in heat throughout the country a great difference in cold is noted between the north and south, and even the variation in temperature between day and night is very sharp, sometimes reaching 25 degrees in places near the Manchurian border. On the other hand, the east coast has a milder climate than the west coast, being at least two degrees higher except in summer, due to the less frequency of the prevailing wind in winter as well as to the presence of warm currents along its shores. The cold in winter fluctuates according to atmospheric pressure and there are frequent short spells of milder weather, so that the people commonly describe it as "three cold and four warm." The coldest month of the year is January and the hottest months are July and August.

The maximum, minimum, and mean temperatures so far registered in the chief centres from south to north are given in the following table :

Place	Greatest Heat, C.	Greatest Cold, C.	Mean Temp. in Heat, C.	Mean Temp. in Cold, C.
Fusan . . . . .	35.0	-14.0	18.6	9.8
Mokpo . . . . .	37.0	-14.2	17.7	9.7
Taikyu . . . . .	39.2	-20.2	18.1	7.4
Zenshu . . . . .	37.3	-15.3	17.6	7.4
Keijo . . . . .	37.5	-23.1	16.1	5.9
Gensan . . . . .	39.6	-21.9	15.1	6.0
Heijo . . . . .	36.4	-28.5	14.6	4.2
Joshin . . . . .	37.5	-24.6	12.7	3.9
Ryugampo . . . . .	35.1	-28.8	12.9	4.2
Yuki . . . . .	36.4	-24.3	10.4	2.3
Chukochin . . . . .	38.0	-41.6	11.4	-2.9

The meteorology of eastern Asia is generally influenced by the incidence of the monsoons, and so in Chosen the direction of the prevailing wind remains almost constant for the season, i. e., north-westerly in winter and southerly in summer. The fall of rain

and snow is more abundant than in Manchuria, but scanty compared with that in Japan proper, and for the most part ranges from 800 to 1,200 mm., diminishing from south to north. Fortunately, Chosen, unlike Japan, is outside the track of typhoons or the zone of earthquakes, and so enjoys immunity from their calamitous visitations. But between June and August, the wet months of the year, it often happens that exceedingly heavy rain falls locally, the amount in a day often exceeding 300 mm., with the result that the streams are flooded and great damage is done to crops and other property. The snowfall varies more or less every year with its season from November to March, except in the northern highlands where it sets in earlier and ends later than in other parts.

Throughout the year the rainfall is rather small, the air is semi-arid, and the hours of bright sunshine are many, hence evaporation is usually in excess of the rainfall except in a few eastern localities. The yearly fall is greatest in Fusan and district, in the south, where it measures no less than 1,500 mm., and smallest in the basin of the Tumen, in the north, with only 500 mm. The dense fogs visiting the surrounding seas are notorious, and no part of the coast is free from them. Foggy days during the year number as many as 70 around the southern archipelago as centre, decreasing to as low as 20 in the more northern latitudes. The fogs, as a rule, are thicker the farther offshore they are, and in June and July, the season when they are densest, a fog will sometimes last for three whole days and nights.

#### 4. Population

In old Korea a census was nominally taken for the sole purpose of fixing the basis of assessment, and often the men in charge indulged in the vicious practice of falsifying returns with intent to fatten on the taxes paid by unrecorded families. The statistics made up in such manner were, indeed, anything but reliable. When the protectorate régime was established in 1906, as a preliminary to

the efficient working of the civil administration, instructions were sent to each provincial police office to make actual and honest investigation of the entire population on a certain date, and this was, one might say, the first real census ever taken. The count could not be made as accurately as desired owing to many difficulties in the way, yet the results obtained gave a much truer idea of the population than previous calculations, for up to that time the population had been returned at something more than 5,000,000, whereas the new investigation put it at 9,781,000.

Immigration of Japanese into Chosen may be said to have begun after the opening of Fusan in 1876, and they numbered approximately 10,000 at the time of the China-Japan War, their settlement, however, being confined to the open ports only. About the time of the Russo-Japanese War, with the expansion of Japanese influence and the opening of the Korean railways, they began to penetrate into the interior, and their number increased considerably under the protectorate; while after the annexation the stream of immigration tended to swell in volume.

Along with the improvement of economic and sanitary conditions in the country the population has of late considerably increased, and the latest investigation taken at the end of 1930 puts the approximate total at twenty million of which five hundred thousand or 2.5 per cent. were Japanese and sixty nine thousand or 0.34 per cent. foreigners of whom 97 per cent. were Chinese. The average density per square kilo is calculated at 91.8 as against 169 in Japan proper (which is now overpeopled,) and varies according to locality, the south being usually more populous than the north, ranging between 170.7 and 35.2 to the square Kilo. Of the entire population 83.3 per cent. are agriculturists. The proportion of men to women at the end of 1930 was 100 to 96.3 putting the total excess of males over females at nearly half a million, while the average for the past 10 years shows that the birth rate exceeds the death rate by 15.78 per thousand, giving a natural increase of some two hundred thousand a year.



## (1) Population of Provinces, End of 1930.

Province	Korean	Japanese	Foreign (incl. Chinese)	Total	Density Per. sq. Kilo
Keiki . . . . .	1,902,861	126,410	12,137	2,041,408	159.3
North Chusei . . .	866,628	7,847	1,233	875,708	118.1
South Chusei . . .	1,327,242	22,127	2,713	2,352,082	166.8
North Zenra . . .	1,420,349	32,561	3,036	1,455,946	170.7
South Zenra . . .	2,197,420	39,952	2,184	2,239,556	161.3
North Keisho . . .	2,280,965	50,155	2,457	2,333,577	122.9
South Keisho . . .	1,975,238	82,787	1,680	2,059,705	167.4
Kokai . . . . .	1,469,799	17,247	4,556	1,491,602	89.2
South Heian . . .	1,260,833	31,542	5,805	1,298,180	87.0
North Heian . . .	1,460,589	19,322	16,888	1,496,799	52.6
Kogen . . . . .	1,398,965	10,528	1,681	1,411,174	53.7
South Kankyo . . .	1,441,898	34,720	8,292	1,484,910	46.4
North Kankyo . . .	682,800	26,669	6,447	715,916	35.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>19,685,587</b>	<b>501,867</b>	<b>69,109</b>	<b>20,256,563</b>	<b>91.8</b> (average)
<b>1925 . . . . .</b>	<b>18,543,326</b>	<b>424,740</b>	<b>47,460</b>	<b>19,015,528</b>	<b>86.1</b> (average)
<b>1920 . . . . .</b>	<b>16,916,078</b>	<b>347,850</b>	<b>25,031</b>	<b>17,288,989</b>	<b>78.3</b> (average)
<b>1910 . . . . .</b>	<b>13,128,780</b>	<b>171,543</b>	<b>12,694</b>	<b>13,313,017</b>	<b>60.3</b> (average)

## (2) Population of Principal Cities and Towns. End of 1930.

Town	Korean	Japanese	Chinese	Other	Total
Keiki . . . . .					
Keijo . . . . .	251,228	97,758	5,987	453	355,426
Jinsen . . . . .	49,960	11,238	2,427	33	63,658
Kaijo . . . . .	47,007	1,390	149	29	48,575
Suigen . . . . .	11,116	1,608	81	3	12,808
Yeitoho . . . . .	6,834	958	160	...	7,952
N. Chusei . . . . .					
Seishu . . . . .	13,224	2,696	186	12	16,118
Chushu . . . . .	21,165	1,121	131	...	22,417
S. Chusei . . . . .					
Koshu . . . . .	10,016	2,054	177	7	12,254

Town	Korean	Japanese	Chinese	Other	Total
Taiden . . . . .	14,701	6,523	232	...	21,456
Kokei . . . . .	10,794	1,548	230	...	12,581
Fuyo . . . . .	12,004	300	36	...	12,340
Tenan . . . . .	11,387	1,119	151	...	12,657
Chochiin . . . . .	7,028	1,262	131	...	8,421
N. Zenra . . . . .					
Zenshu . . . . .	32,136	5,204	468	34	37,842
Kunsan . . . . .	16,541	8,781	625	14	25,961
Riri . . . . .	13,801	3,789	213	...	17,803
Seiyu . . . . .	14,398	1,230	189	2	15,819
S. Zenra . . . . .					
Kowshu . . . . .	26,113	6,199	176	59	32,547
Mokpo . . . . .	23,488	8,003	305	21	31,817
Reisui . . . . .	18,885	2,885	204	...	21,974
Saishu . . . . .	37,915	595	11	...	38,511
N. Keisho . . . . .					
Taikyū . . . . .	70,820	29,633	570	55	101,078
Kinsen . . . . .	12,847	1,870	145	...	14,862
Anto . . . . .	13,499	737	49	7	14,292
Hoko . . . . .	9,241	2,164	79	...	11,484
Keishu . . . . .	16,508	845	36	...	17,389
Shoshu . . . . .	25,478	1,147	132	...	26,757
S. Keisho . . . . .					
Fusan . . . . .	85,585	44,273	504	35	130,397
Masan . . . . .	20,149	5,559	94	8	25,810
Shinshu . . . . .	20,859	2,268	31	11	23,169
Toci . . . . .	17,911	3,075	55	6	21,047
Chinkai . . . . .	13,439	4,470	30	...	18,939
Torai . . . . .	17,924	996	12	3	18,935
Kokai . . . . .					
Kaishu . . . . .	20,234	2,640	329	13	23,216
Shariin . . . . .	19,377	1,789	473	...	21,639
Kenjiho . . . . .	9,182	2,489	507	...	12,178
S. Heian . . . . .					
Heijo . . . . .	116,650	18,157	1,995	125	136,927

Town	Korean	Japanese	Chinese	Other	Total
Chinnampo . . . . .	30,415	5,894	1,086	6	37,401
Anshu . . . . .	16,214	347	120	2	16,683
N. Heian . . . . .					
Shingishu . . . . .	29,003	7,907	7,487	1	44,398
Gishu . . . . .	9,167	476	183	6	9,832
Sensen . . . . .	12,959	492	303	18	13,772
Teishu . . . . .	8,085	931	205	...	9,221
Kokai . . . . .	8,639	639	169	15	9,462
Hokuchin (Unsan) . . . . .	13,236	209	939	56	14,440
Kogen . . . . .					
Shunsen . . . . .	7,453	1,709	44	4	9,210
Tetsugen . . . . .	12,993	1,001	154	3	14,151
Koryo . . . . .	12,637	822	36	...	13,495
S. Kankyo . . . . .					
Kanko . . . . .	32,523	7,096	546	12	40,177
Gensan . . . . .	32,503	9,334	1,186	37	43,060
Hokusei . . . . .	15,882	673	95	...	16,650
N. Kankyo . . . . .					
Ranan . . . . .	8,763	6,078	525	1	15,367
Seishin . . . . .	24,003	8,355	1,348	19	33,325
Joshin . . . . .	9,810	1,429	213	14	11,466
Yuki . . . . .	18,704	2,213	893	...	21,810
Kainei . . . . .	14,880	2,274	406	9	17,569

Note: The first town in each province is the seat of provincial government.

### (3) Population according to Occupation, End of 1930

Occupation	Korean	Japanese	Foreign			
			Chinese	American	British	Other
Agriculture, Forestry, Stock-breeding, Fishery . . . . .	16,165,983	54,696	16,862	...	...	16
Industry . . . . .	449,262	72,434	9,787	53	15	12
Commerce, Transportation . . . . .	1,253,895	147,433	30,845	42	27	112
Public Service and Professions . . . . .	523,105	176,795	751	604	203	165
Miscellaneous . . . . .	948,078	31,892	8,043	32	9	15
Unrecorded . . . . .	345,264	18,612	1,509	2	...	5
<b>Total . . . . .</b>	<b>19,685,587</b>	<b>501,867</b>	<b>67,797</b>	<b>733</b>	<b>254</b>	<b>325</b>

## 5. Koreans abroad

It is a well known fact that the cradle of the Korean race was in and around the place called Fuyo, on the River Sungari near Changchun, Manchuria, before the Christian era and innumerable Koreans as well as those of mixed race remained and scattered all over Manchuria and Mongolia.

It seems, therefore, natural for them to settle in these sections.

In later periods those who had created the nation in the Peninsula began a return movement into the more sparsely inhabited lands of their ancestors. Especially the highlanders living along the frontier, from time to time, crossed the Tumen River in great numbers and settled in the neighbouring Chinese territory known as Chientao. These settlers now numbering 394,937 or 80 per cent. of the total population of Chientao are mostly farmers whose honest labour turned the wild but rich virgin soil into fertile lands.

More than half of the arable land in Chientao is in Korean ownership and a large part of the remainder, though under Chinese ownership, is cultivated by Korean tenants.

Other groups of Koreans on the borderland crossed the Yalu River and proceeded to the interior of Manchuria for the same purpose of farming. After the Russo-Japanese War, still greater numbers of immigrants from the south of Korea swarmed into Manchuria through Antung and the South Manchuria Railway, and many settled in the regions along the Chinese Eastern Railway. Now they are scattered throughout Manchuria even in the remotest interior. According to Consular statistics, at present they number about 210,388. But the real figure would perhaps be double this.

The tremendous development of the railways and communication facilities in recent years is one of the chief reasons for this emigration movement, but the success in rice cultivation in that part of the world attracted the Koreans, since the northern Chinese had no experience of growing rice in wet paddy fields. The result is that the Korean immigrants now monopolize the tilling of paddy fields

in Manchuria.

At that time there was no anti-Korean spirit among the Chinese people. On the contrary the Chinese land-owners welcomed Korean farmers.

According to the investigation of the Foreign Office of the Home Government in 1930 the total number of Koreans living in Manchuria and Chientao is 605,325. But it is safe to say that the real figure would be nearer one million. A certain number are said to have been naturalized as Chinese, but statistics are very unreliable.

As fruits of their labour, the Koreans own land

in Hunchun and Chientao .....	110,268	chobu.
in Kirin Province .....	3,788	„
in Heilung Kiang (Tsitsikhar) Province.....	882	„

Total 114,938 chobu.

It must be borne in mind that the lands in Hunchun and Chientao are mostly dry-land farms, while those in Manchuria and Mongolia are mostly paddy fields. Only naturalized Koreans have the right to own land. Hence the self-supporting farmers are numerous in Chientao where comparatively many naturalized Koreans live; but in Manchuria and Mongolia, the Koreans work as tenants under Chinese landowners.

Their chief agricultural products are rice, millet, beans, corn, kao-liang, wheat, barley, potatoes and Chinese hemp. In 1929, the value of their output in Hunchun and Chientao alone was ¥27,559,361.

Educational facilities for Korean immigrants consist of 431 schools in Chientao and 63 in Manchuria and Mongolia.

There are also Peoples' Cooperative Guilds, Credit Unions and hospitals for the benefit of these immigrants.

With regard to their protection, the Government-General has been cooperating with the Foreign Office of the Home Government since 1921—when an agreement between the two Offices was made, by which the former controls education, public health, quarantine, banking, industries and relief work, while the latter is in charge of

police affairs and matters of investigation and census registration.

At the present time, one Korean Vice-Consul is stationed in Mukden, and the Consul-General at Chientao, the Consuls at Mukden, Changchun and Antung, have been given additional post of Secretary of the Government-General in order that the Government-General of Chosen may cooperate with the Foreign office of the Home Government.

In this manner it is hoped to effect a thorough-going protection of Koreans abroad.

From 1921 a special account for the protection of Koreans abroad has been inserted every year in the budget of the Government-General.

In April 1930, ¥819,647 was given as subsidies (as compared with ¥288,368 in 1921) to education, banking, medical care, farming and industries, and for relief, for educational tours, and to the private railway in Chientao.

A Korean Secretary of the Government-General makes periodical lecturing tours throughout Manchuria, carrying with him moving pictures of recent Korean life and other films of interest.

There are still many Korean immigrants living in Asiatic Russia, especially in Vladivostok and Nikolaievsk. The Koreans living along the Maritime Province north and south of Vladivostok are, with few exceptions, engaged in rice cultivation as their fellows in Manchuria.

The Korean immigrants in North America, Hawaii and Mexico settled there some thirty years ago when immigration of orientals in America was unrestricted. Most of these immigrants are labourers, but some of them are political refugees who still engage themselves in anti-Japanese propaganda among foreigners as well as their own nationals.

From the beginning of the Korean National Independence Movement of 1919, they established headquarters in Shanghai to centralize their activities.

The political refugees in Manchuria have, from time to time, returned to their homeland, crossing the border and carrying on guerilla warfare with frontier guards. Both the police and civil population have suffered considerable damage from their attacks.



Some of them are sworn communists, and are in close alliance with Chinese bandits and Russian Bolsheviks. A party of these allied forces attacked, burned and plundered the Japanese Consulate and also murdered and robbed civilians in Hunchun in the Autumn of 1920. The Japanese Government despatched troops to the scene of these outrages, when the greater part of the Koreans fled north and the rest, numbering some 5,000, surrendered. But the menace of their renewed activity was by no means over. Therefore the Government-General sent reinforcements to the frontier regions and in 1925 made a special agreement with the Chinese Authorities in Manchuria to cooperate in suppressing their activities, and by these means peace and order were restored.

As for the Korean malcontents in Shanghai, they organized a Provisional Government as soon as the Independence Movement of 1919 was started in Korea, and have since been engaged in several political conspiracies. But owing to their internecine quarrels and lack of funds, they made but little progress. Nevertheless they continued their activities and in 1927, when the Chinese Nationalist army moved northward, many Korean students in China volunteered to join the army in order to draw sympathy for their cause from the Nationalist Government and to arouse a revolutionary spirit among their Korean brethren.

The Korean communists both at home and abroad are in secret alliance with the Russians and carry on communist propaganda among their fellow country men at home. Therefore the police make every endeavour to prevent any communication between them.

It is true that the efforts of the authorities and the benevolent rule of successive governors-general, has effected considerable change in the general attitude, and there is much better feeling among Koreans both at home and abroad.

## 6. Race and Language

Opinions differ as to the exact origin of the Koreans. It is evident,

however, that they are of the Mongol family and are closely allied to the Japanese. From the various historic relics discovered, as well as from the extensive anthropological study conducted throughout the country, it would appear that the prehistoric inhabitants of the peninsula, from whom the present Koreans are descended, were of the same race as those then dwelling in the western half of Japan, in Manchuria, and in the southern part of the Siberian littoral. As time went on, much intermingling of blood took place among these branches, especially in the case of Koreans and Chinese, since Chinese colonies were established along the north-western coast from very early times, but that they did not supersede the native race in any appreciable degree is clear from their descendants being distinct from Chinese in physiognomy, though black, straight hair, dark, oblique eyes, and a tinge of bronze in the skin are always present. In language, Korean belongs to the Turanian group, is polysyllabic, possesses an alphabet of 11 vowels and 14 consonants, and a script known as *Eunmoon*. It is more akin to Japanese than any other tongue. Its sentence and grammatical construction is almost identical with the Japanese, and although in sound and vocabulary they are quite dissimilar, there are many words with common origin in the two languages. This fact accounts for the great facility with which Koreans generally learn Japanese, being assisted in it by their own linguistic aptitude which is proverbial. From these and other evidences, combined with the beautiful traditions common to both, it will be seen that the Koreans and Japanese are no strangers to each other but have been intimately associated from very remote days.

## 7. Manners and Customs

In old Korea high officials, civil or military, together with nobles and scholars formed the first class in society under the name "Yangban" and enjoyed many special privileges. Below came two distinct classes, common and low, the former consisting of farmers, traders, and artisans, the latter, of menials, butchers,





8. Women's Swings in the Spring festival.



9. See-Saw on New Year's Day.





10. Korean women pickling "Kimchi."



actors, monks, etc., and its members were treated both socially and judicially according to class, though the last-named class was always held in the greatest contempt as being the dregs of humanity. These class distinctions were declared abolished in 1894. when the Reform Party gained the ascendancy, but it was not until the advent of the new régime in 1910 that equal status was really granted to all the people, except members of a royal or princely family. Still *Yangban* is a familiar word, and is even in popular use to denote men of wealth or of high position though they may not be of noble birth.

The Korean costume consists of a vest, coat, and trousers for both sexes, though of course differing in style, and to these a skirt is added for females. The clothing of the common people is mostly made of cotton or hemp, while the wealthy wear silk, and their favourite colours are white and light blue, and the large majority of the people are still to be seen clothed in white at all seasons. In point of comfort, however, the Korean dress appears unexcelled in the world, being cool in warm weather and warm in cold. As the prevailing colour for clothes is white, washing is an important affair in every household, and it is a very common sight to see a group of Korean women engaged in washing, mostly by the side of a running brook.

Korean houses of the upper classes have tiled roofs and are surrounded by walls pierced with a double gateway, outer and inner. The main building contains a large middle room which serves as parlour and office, and at both ends of it are smaller rooms for the use of male members of the family. The women live in an inner apartment in accordance with the custom of keeping the sexes apart. On the other hand, houses of the common folk are for the most part small, low, and thatched, and have but few rooms, the walls of which are simply yet firmly built of stone and clay. Almost all are but one storey in height. Under old conditions high buildings were forbidden. Now that no such restriction exists, two-storey and even brick houses are favoured,

especially in urban districts. The most singular part of a Korean house is its heating arrangement called *ondol*. The floor is made of flag-stones plastered over with clay and covered with thick oiled paper, and underneath, forming as it were the joists, runs a series of horizontal flues in connection with each other. Fire is made outside this room, in another earth-floor room which serves as a kitchen. Over this fire is placed the kettles and boiling-pots where the food is cooked. The hot, smoke-laden air passes through the flues under the floor of the room, thus economising fuel which is made to serve the double purpose of cooking and heating. The smoke passes out in a chimney on the other side the flue which is frequently carried first for some distance underground. The floor of a room heated in this way is most comfortable in the Korean winter.

Rice is the principal food, and is eaten with meat, fish (mostly dried), and various vegetables, but in the country millet or barley often substitutes for the costly rice. The Koreans have a particular liking for strong spices, such as red pepper and leeks. A pickle called "Kimchi" is an indispensable adjunct to Korean meals, and a well-to-do family keeps a good stock of it. It is usually made of white cabbage and radish mixed with fruits, red pepper, etc., and is preserved in deep earthenware jars. The meals are served on little low tables, one for each person, and are taken with spoon and chopsticks. Brass vessels are largely used besides those of porcelain. *Sool*, made from rice, similar to the sake of Japan is the common drink.

In Chosen it is the rule for a newly-wedded woman to enter the family of her husband, though in some few cases the man makes his home with her family. Marriage cannot be contracted between near relatives, nor between blood relatives on the male side, not even after the lapse of generations. Monogamy, taught by Confucius, has been observed from of old, but the chief object of marriage being the generation of issue by which to perpetuate one's line, concubinage was recognized in the case of a marriage proving childless. This is illegal and the custom itself seems to



be on the wane. The marriage of young people is usually arranged by their guardians without regard to their wishes, but there is now appearing a tendency to respect the will of the parties themselves. Until the day of marriage the engaged couple usually do not meet, and have probably never before seen one another. A wedding is always conducted at the bride's home, and after that the bridegroom takes her to his own house where the ceremony is concluded. In the days of the Korean Government it was prescribed that the nubile age was fifteen for males and fourteen for females, yet in reality many males were married at an even earlier age. Since 1915, however, no marriage of a male under 17 or female under 15 is legally recognized.

A funeral service is performed by relatives and close friends without the assistance of a priest, and the body is invariably interred, the idea of cremation still being repugnant to Koreans in general. The choice of a burial site is of very great importance, and to decide this geomancers are called in. The period of mourning ranges from three months to three years according to the degree of relationship. Ancestor-worship based on Confucian principles is held most dear by the Koreans, and the custom is to enshrine the tablets of their dead for four generations back at home, and to conduct memorial services for those of more remote generations at the family burial-ground.

Allied to ancestor worship, which is the principal religious tenet of the Koreans, is animism. This still prevails among the majority of the people who believe that spirits pervade all nature, and for them every place, every corner of their habitations, and almost everything on earth has its spirit, usually an evil one, and this faith is symbolized, for instance, by the hideous images one often sees carved on wayside posts. The superstitious fear of these spirits haunts the lives of all credulous folk. Should a house take fire, or a man contract a disease, it is always ascribed to the malignant act of some mysterious spirit, so sorcerers are called in to expel such spirits by weird music and dancing.



## 8. Principal Cities and Places of Interest

**Keijo**, or Seoul, the seat of the Government-General, is situated about the middle of the peninsula near the western coast. It is a city of great natural beauty with the lofty peaks of Hokkan-San on the north and the green hill of Nan-San on the south, while the River Han skirts it on the south-west, thus making it a very beautiful site for the capital of the country. As the capital of old Korea for five centuries, it abounds in palaces, gates, and other sights of historic or artistic interest, all proclaiming the glory of by-gone days. Under the new régime the city has been greatly modernized and during recent years has made tremendous municipal development, as is evidenced by the increase in up-to-date buildings, improved streets, and cultural institutions, as well as by various adjuncts of modern life, such as waterworks, tramways, electric light, gas, telephone, etc., and in its new aspect Keijo stands comparison with any of the large cities in the Orient. British, American, French, Russian, Chinese, Belgian and Dutch Consulates are located here. There are four public gardens, besides the Zoological and Botanical Gardens, which are among the best in the Far East.

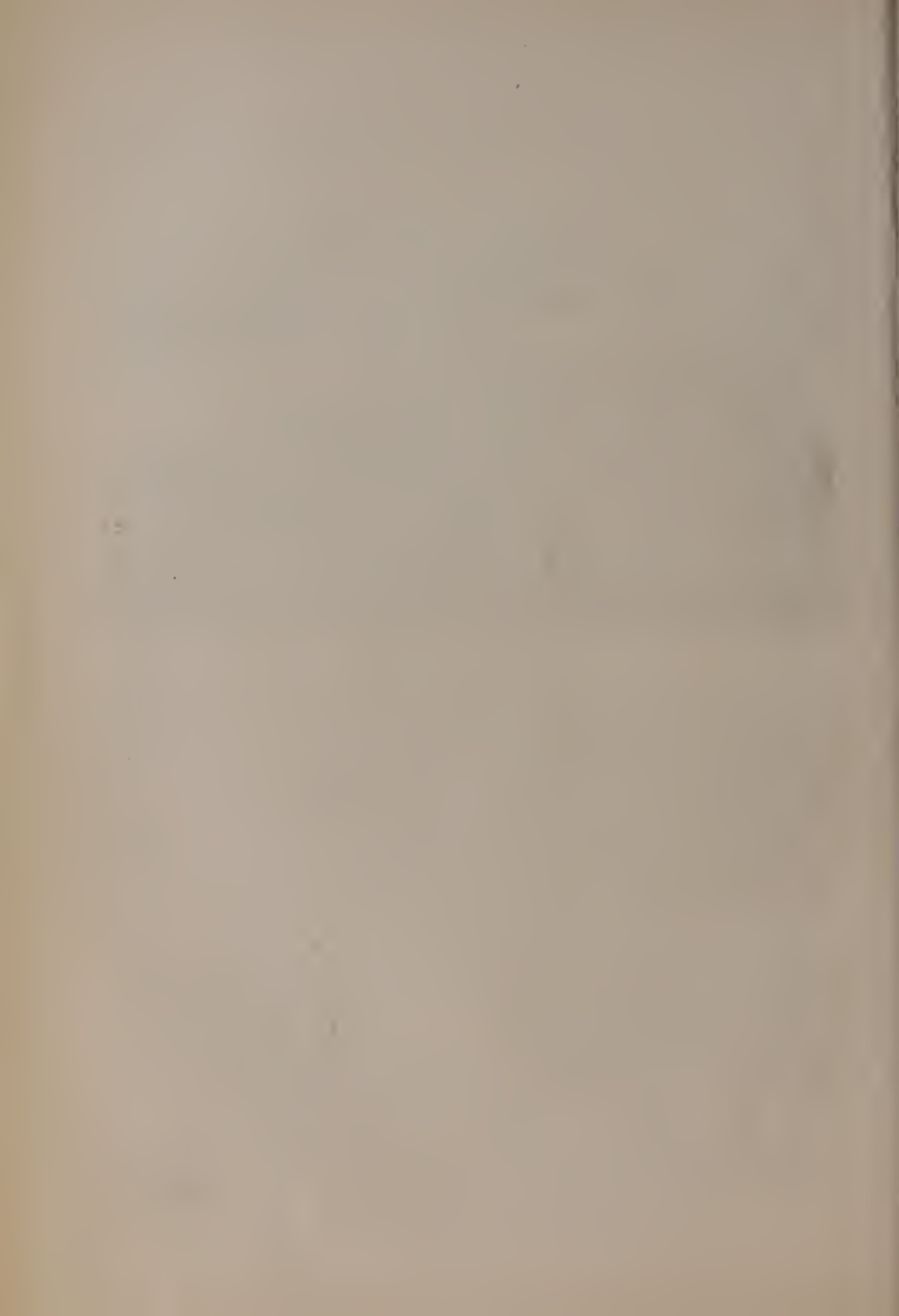
**Jinsen** (Chemulpo), 24 miles west of Keijo, is the second port in Chosen and was opened to trade in 1883 under the Japanese-Korean Agreement then entered into. While the harbour is sheltered by Getsubito and Shato, islands lying across its entrance, it suffers considerable inconvenience in the anchoring and unloading of ships due to the great difference between ebb and flow tide which reaches 10 metres, to overcome which the construction of a lock-gate dock after the pattern of the Panama Canal locks was started in 1911 and completed in 1918. The dock has a water area large and deep enough to accommodate three steamers of 4,500 tons at one time. A regular service is maintained between Jinsen and the chief ports in West Japan and North China. Getsubito, pleasantly situated, and joined by a long embankment



11. Peony Point overlooking the Daido River, Heijo (Pyeng Yang)



12. Cherry Blossoms in the East Palace Botanical Gardens.



to the town which stands on the side of an undulating hill, is famous for its cherry-blossoms in the spring and bathing accommodation in the summer. Between Jinsen and Keijo trains run every hour, the distance being covered in less than an hour.

**Kaijo** (Song-dò), 45 miles north-west of Keijo on the main railway line, was the capital of Korea for nearly five centuries until 1392 when its premier position was surrendered to Keijo on the rise of the Yi Dynasty. Being an ancient town it contains many interesting scenes and relics, while it is noted as the home of Korean ginseng, the production of which now amounts to two million *yen* a year, and also as the chief producer of Chosen *shochu* (distilled spirit). Peaches grown here are large and very sweet. The "Pak-yun" Waterfall, 10 miles distant from Kaijo Station by motorcar, is one of the beauty spots of Chosen and is a very popular resort for picnic parties from the capital since the visit can be made in one day.

**Fusan**, 280 miles from Keijo, is the main gateway to Chosen and the southern terminus of the Korean trunk line. The harbour is excellently protected with a range of hills on the north-west and sentinel-like islands on the south, and the largest vessels afloat can approach the quay. The port, the oldest and largest in the peninsula, was once the only channel of traffic between Japan and Korea, but the opening of the railway and the improvement effected in the land and sea connection at its piers have made it an important doorway to the continent, and each year adds to its expansion and prosperity. Fusan and Shimonoseki (Japan) are joined by ferry boats which ply regularly twice a day between them, doing the distance in eight hours. Fusan is the seat of the provincial government. Seven miles north of the town is a delightful spa called Torai lying at the foot of a charming hill and reached by motor-car or tram. Its waters, clear and of an alkaline nature, are said to have various curative effects.

**Masan** is a pretty port at the head of Chinkai Bay with a screen of hills for background. Besides commanding a superb

view of the bay it has the advantage of being situated in the most salubrious part of the peninsula. Hence it has a reputation as a health resort. Old Masan is the native town, while New Masan is chiefly inhabited by Japanese and has well-laid-out streets. The town is 24 miles by rail from Sanroshin, a town on the main line.

**Taikyū**, 203 miles south of Keijo and situated in a vast fertile plain, is the principal centre for the distribution of all kinds of produce in the south as well as the seat of the provincial government. One of the four largest cities in Chosen, Taikyū is equipped with electric light, waterworks, telephone, and other modern conveniences. Great fairs especially for the sale of herbal medicines, are periodically held here which attract immense crowds from far and near. The surrounding country is noted for its sericulture which becomes more important each year. Agriculture also flourishes, the apple especially being grown in large quantities. Taikyū is already very much to the fore and in time will be classed with Heijo as a typical industrial city.

**Keishū** lies 43 miles from Taikyū and may be reached either by rail or motor-bus. This old town was the capital of the Kingdom of Silla, which lasted nearly 1,000 years, and abounds in various interesting scenes and ruins, such as palaces, tombs, temples, etc., recalling the glorious days of Silla and so is an important centre for the study of Oriental art. The ruins, while showing the influence of Chinese art, present also native characteristics of the period and are worthy of attention. Quite a number of antiquities excavated in the neighbourhood are exhibited in the local museum. Keishū is called the Nara of Chosen because it bears some resemblance to the old capital of Japan both in scenery and topography. Among the various sights in this part of the country the best known are Bukkoku-ji and Sekkutsu-an situated 10 miles away, the one being an ancient Buddhist temple with two pagodas, and the other a sacred stone cave containing images of Buddha and his saints carved in bas-relief, and all are typical of



the style of religious architecture and art prevailing in ancient Korea.

**Taiden**, 104 miles from Keijo, is the junction for the Konan Line, and the commerical centre, next to Taikyu, of the middle south. In 1905, when the Kei-Fu Line was completed, there were but few Japanese families in the town, but it has since grown so rapidly that it has now 21,000 inhabitants. On January 20, 1931 the Government-General announced its decision to move here the Provincial Government of South Chūsei from Kōshu (Kong-ju). A fine Provincial Office has been begun and the city may look forward to becoming one of the greatest cities of Chosen. Seven miles north-west is the hot-spring of Jujo. It is a quiet resort full of rural charm and its waters are said to possess a larger amount of radium emanation than those of any other spa in Chosen.

North of Taiden, are the Onyo hot springs, which have been famous amongst Koreans for many hundreds of years. The town is reached from Tenan (on the main line from Keijo to Taiden) by a branch line going west. Through carriages to Onyo can be found on certain trains from Keijo, and visitors are increasing. The spa is well laid out and the waters are good in nervous and rheumatic complaints. Excellent modern accommodation can be obtained at the Onyo Railway Hotel.

**Fuyo**, 12 miles from Ronsan Station on the Konan line, is situated on the bank of River Kin (or Saja River or White Horse River). It was the capital of the ancient Kingdom of Packje and numerous historical remains are still preserved. There is a precipice known as "Falling Flowers" on the bank of the river. The name was given in commemoration of the court ladies of Packje who gathered on that precipice and jumped into the river below when pursued by the invading troops of Silla and China. The "Dragon-Fishing" Isle and the "Self-Warming" Rock, the "Half-Moon" Castle and the ancient mausoleums, temples and pagoda along the river are all worth seeing.

**Kunsan**, 14 miles from Riri on the main Konan line, is situated

on the bank of the Kinko near its mouth. One of the leading ports in the peninsula it was opened to trade in 1890 and now conducts regular shipping services to other Korean ports and to Japan and China. Near by are several fishing centres, while in the rear of the town stretch the vast districts of Zenshu and Kokei, known as "the granary of Chosen." Kunsan's greatest, if not its only export, is rice, and in the season the entire town presents a scene of animated bustle. In the town are found many rice-cleaning mills and along the water front many godowns. Kunsan Park is on a hill in its eastern part and affords the visitor a bird's eye view of the town and its environs of rural beauty.

**Zenshu**, 30 miles from Kunsan via Riri, is famous for its historical remains and its beautiful scenery, such as the Ancestral Shrine of Prince Yi, "Nankosan" Castle and "Tokushin" Lotus Pond. The vast plain of Zenshu is one of the largest granaries of Chosen. It produces about one million koku of rice of the best quality and the bulk of it is transported to Kunsan for shipment abroad.

Zenshu is also famous for special products such as Korean fans, paper, persimmon and ginger. The soft persimmon, dried persimmon and ginger preserves produced here are of high quality.

**Mokpo**, is the terminus of the Konan Line and occupies a very important place in the Korean shipping trade. The port was opened in 1897 and derives its prosperity from the rich lands lying behind it. The harbour is snugly sheltered by a hill on the north-west, a promontory on the south-east, and an island at its entrance, and the water is deep, even at low tide, so that ships of 15,000 tons can cast anchor close in shore. It has a regular steamship line plying to other Korean ports and to Japan proper. Raw cotton, grain, and marine products are the chief articles of export, and in the cotton season one sees "mountain high" heaps of goods on the shore.

**Heijo**, 161 miles from Keijo, and the seat of the provincial government, is the largest town and the centre of commercial and industrial activities in the north west. It stands on the right bank of the River Daido and occupies a most prominent economic position.



This is the city in which the famous Kija founded his kingdom, to be supplanted afterwards by the kingdom of Kokuryo which prospered for 700 years, and it abounds in historic monuments and scenes. Around the town are many points of interest to visitors, the best known of them being Botandai, a picturesque height overlooking the magnificent river below, which is within twenty minutes' ride by motor. It is the site of a fierce battle during the China-Japan war.

**Chinnampo**, 34 miles by rail from Heijo and located near the mouth of the Daido, is the largest trading port in North West Chosen. While it has a natural harbour the lack of proper accommodation was for long keenly felt, and a dock was started in 1909 and completed in seven years at great expense. It is now possible to moor two steamers of the 3,000 ton class at the same time. There is a regular line from this port to China and Japan in addition to the local coasting service. About 30 miles south of Chinnampo, a summer bathing resort has been developed chiefly by the foreign missionaries near a village called Sorai. During July and August this resort is nearly as popular as the Beach at Gensan.

**Shingishu**, 308 miles from Keijo, is an open port and also the provincial capital. The town stands on the left bank of the Yalu, which forms the boundary between Chosen and China, and occupies a very important position. On the opposite side of the river is Antung one of the largest cities in Manchuria, and an iron bridge, 3,093 feet long with a footway on either side, connects the two towns as well as the Korean and Manchurian railways. Shingishu is still young, but various industries are being developed here, taking advantage of the great navigable waters, and there is every sign that this gateway of Chosen will grow in prosperity. Among the chief industries are lumbering, rice-cleaning, and paper-making. In the amount of trade Shingishu is fifth in the trading ports of Chosen.

**Gensan**, 140 miles north of Keijo and situated on Eiko Bay, is the finest port on the east coast of the peninsula. Two promontories jutting out north and south of it, and a few greencrested islets outside the bay form for it a natural breakwater. The harbour works started

years ago are now completed, and all ships plying between West Japan and Vladivostok make regular calls here. Gensan was opened in 1891, and has since made such considerable progress that it now ranks among the leading Korean ports. At the eastern end of the town is Shotōen, a very beautiful beach with green pines skirting it, and in the summer season there is always a great rush of people to this ideal resort. On the opposite side of the bay, facing the sea of Japan, a charming summer resort has been developed chiefly by the missionary families, which is most conveniently reached from Katsuma, the station next south of Gensan.

**Seishin**, 330 miles from Gensan, is an important port and the commercial centre of North Chosen. Up to the Russo-Japanese war it was a mere fishing hamlet and its growth began when it was made an open port in 1908. Since the opening of the northern section of the Kankyō Railway it has become more thriving. The harbour is deep and offers comfortable anchorage to large ships, but its broad entrance, making it a prey to high waves, is a disadvantage and steps are being taken to overcome this handicap. Now that the railway from Kainei to Tunwha is likely to be completed, thus making connection with Kirin and Changchun on the South Manchuria Railway, Seishin may look forward to considerable increase in shipping. South from Seishin are the Shuotsu hot springs, on the main line from Keijo. A bus service runs from Shuotsu Station which reaches the springs in twenty minutes. The delightful situation, the beautiful scenery, and the excellent accommodation has already earned the name of "the Beppu of Chosen." The waters are said to be the best in Chosen.

**Kainei**, 58 miles north of Seishin, is the terminus of the railway from Seishin. Surrounded by a fertile plain and situated on the right bank of the Tumen, beyond which lies the district of Chientao, the town occupies a very important place in the trade with North Manchuria, being traversed by one of the old highways joining the two lands. When the Tumen is frozen over during the winter the river is quite busy with traffic.



13. Shuotsu Hot-Springs, near Seishin, north-eastern Korea.



14. Toryukutsu, known as underground Kongo, a Stalagmite Cave near Neihen (Yeng Byen), north-western Korea.



## 9. Kongo-san

Kongo-san, known to foreigners as the Diamond Mountains, is situated in the province of Kogen near the east coast and is part of the great mountain range forming the backbone of the peninsula. The mountain, about 50 miles in circumference, consists of a large cluster of countless rocky peaks reputed of old to number "twelve thousand." All the peaks are very rugged and fantastic in form, towering boldly into the sky from a wild growth of primeval sylvan vegetation below, and embrace numerous ravines and canyons through which run crystal waters amid huge rocks of grotesque shape. It is these streams that impart infinite charm to the mountain scenery as they rush down in many sparkling falls before settling for a while in deep, emerald-green pools, creating a veritable fairyland. Altogether, it is the form not the height of the rocky peaks that makes it a sight at once unique and wonderful, as the rocks are diversified through the process of thousands of winters' weathering into all manner of fanciful forms, and these, seen from afar, present a purplish-brown colour which adds greatly to their grandeur and impressiveness. This is most strikingly typified in Bambutsuso, perhaps the finest part of the mountain.

The mountain is now usually described under three names. The western side of it facing inland is called Uchi or Inner Kongo, and the eastern side looking toward the sea, Soto or Outer Kango, while the extension of it jutting into the sea in broken masses near Kojo is known by the name Umi or Sea Kongo. Besides, there is Shin or New Kongo lying to the south-east.

Each of these districts has its characteristic scenery and it is difficult to say which is more beautiful. In the current year the electric railway from Tetsugen on the Genzan Line has been extended to Choanji the Chief temple of Uchi Kongo and it is now possible for the hurried traveller to leave Keijo by the night train and see the beauties of this section of the mountains and return to Keijo during the following night. But such a short visit is unworthy of



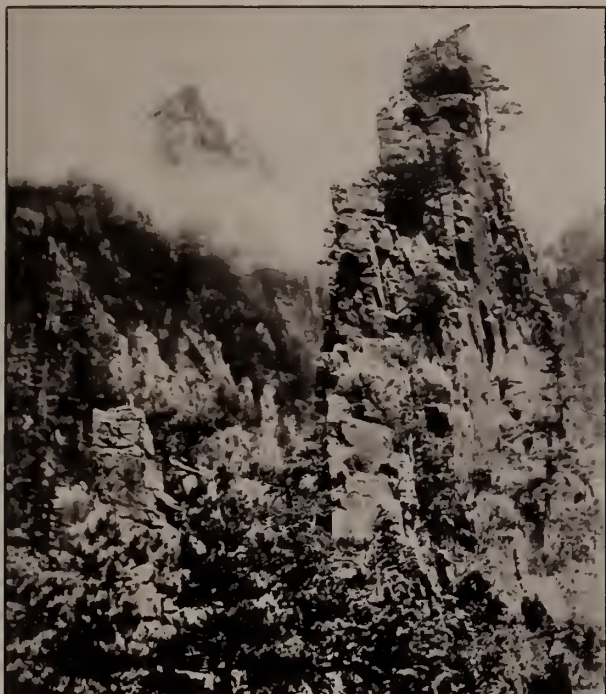
the glories of Kongosan, and the visitor is recommended to give at least a week to appreciate this famous pleasure ground. The highest peak, Biroho, is only 6000 ft., but amongst mountain scenery of this kind, Kongosan probably takes rank as the best in the world.

The mountains have been famous in Chinese literature for nearly 2000 years, though their history has only been known since the arrival of the thirty-three sages who settled at Yutenji in the 4th century, which temple still retains the title of principal monastery and is indeed still the largest. The names used to describe the mountains are taken from the Buddhist Classics, the name Kongo being taken from the "Diamond Sutra", the classic most read in Far Eastern Buddhism.

The Buddhism now practised here is still of the highest level, and the monks take great pride in their glorious traditions. In the most flourishing times there were probably more than a hundred monasteries and cells, but these have gradually been reduced until now there are only twenty five. The four main temples, Yutenji, Choanji, Shinkeiji, and Hyokunji still keep their regular functions and to these are attached various cells, amongst which Makaen and Reigenan are famed for their beautiful situation.

Information with regard to the routes and to the excellent hotel services may easily be obtained from the Tourist Bureau in Chosen Hotel, Keijo, or on application to the Railway Bureau of the Government-General.

The best season for visiting the mountain is mid-autumn, when the country enjoys an unbroken spell of ideal weather for outings and the entire mountain is agleam with the gorgeous tints of autumn foliage. The next preferable season is spring as the lilacs, magnolias, and azaleas are in glorious bloom between April and May and are accompanied with a luxuriant verdure of young leaves. Summer is also a good time for those desiring to escape the heat, for it is delightfully cool on the mountain, though it has the drawback of the rainy season falling within the early part of it. For this purpose excellent bungalow accommodation is available at Choanji.



15. Sansendai, "The Haunt of the Three Fairies" in Bambutsuso.



16. Bambutsuso, "Vision of the Myriad Creatures," Kongosan.





## II. GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATION

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### 10. Government General and its Affiliated Offices

The Government-General of Chosen was inaugurated on the 29th of August, 1910, the day on which annexation was effected, but as the immediate organization of all offices necessary was impossible, the organs existing during the protectorate period were retained in their entirety for the time being, and the Resident-General was made executive chief of the new régime, while the various offices of the defunct Korean Government, with few exceptions, were likewise retained to serve the Government-General.

After the preliminary work was completed, organic regulations for the Government-General were promulgated on September 30 following. As provided in these regulations the Sotoku or Governor-General was appointed directly by the Crown from the army or navy to command the forces in defence of the country and to exercise supreme control over the administration. He was authorized to memorialize the Throne and receive the Imperial sanction through the prime minister, and to issue general ordinances in virtue of his delegated or discretionary power.

At the same time, regulations governing the affiliated offices were promulgated, by which a Central Council was organized as an advisory body for the Governor-General with its members appointed from among prominent Koreans. With the idea of securing the public peace, the gendarmerie police system was adopted with headquarters in the metropolis and subordinate offices in the provinces. The commander of the gendarmerie was additionally made head of the police, and gendarme captains were also placed in charge of provincial police affairs.

The application of all Japanese laws to Chosen should have followed on the annexation, but the widely different condition of the

Korean masses did not warrant this at the beginning, and induced the Government to frame special laws for this land, except with regard to the post and telegraph services, patent rights, copy-right, public accounts, -etc., to which the laws of Japan were made to apply in whole or in part, as unity was desirable for their smooth working.

Since the establishment of the present régime, reforms and improvements have been introduced from time to time as occasion called for them, but in 1919, a thorough-going reform was instituted to meet the changed situation after the World War. Though the plan adopted was prevented for a time from execution owing to the so-called independence agitation in March, that year, it was at last put into effect in August following.

The principal aim of the reform, as stated in the Imperial Rescript issued at the time, was to extend to the Koreans "a fair and impartial treatment in all respects." and "to secure a good and enlightened government" in conformity with the demands of the age. The choice of Governor-General was now widened in scope and even civilians were made eligible for appointment, while on the other hand his competency in the matter of national defence was limited to making application to the Military Commander in Chosen for the despatch of forces when necessary for the preservation of peace and order.

The Seimu-sokan or Vice Governor-General, as hitherto, was charged with assisting the Governor-General, as his chief lieutenant in the administration, and with the supervision of the entire business of bureaus and departments.

The names of the central offices were changed, and they were styled bureaus instead of departments, though with little difference in meaning in either case. The Educational Bureau, formerly part of the Home Affairs Department, was made into an independent one and placed on an equal footing with other bureaus. The Police Headquarters as an independent office was abolished, and a Police Bureau created in the Government-General.

Along with these rearrangements of central offices, adjustment was made regarding the business conducted by the various offices with the object of avoiding red-tapeism, and the execution of general affairs, except in the case of very important matters, was entirely entrusted to the heads of the bureaus and departments. At the same time, the appointment of Korean high officials was made easier than before so as to open the way for placing Koreans of ability in responsible posts.

The police and local organizations were also reformed, and the system of using gendarmerie as the principal force for the policing of the country and subordination of the civil police to it was abandoned, while placing the police in the hands of the provincial governors. Consequently, the police offices, which stood distinctly outside the sphere of local executive organs, ceased to exist, and an ordinary police department was formed in each province with a secretary at its head. Police stations were established in all cities and districts, and a police training school was established in Keijo to train men on modern lines.

In December, 1924, in conformity with the radical retrenchment policy of the home Government, the organization of the administrative machinery in the peninsula was revised to effect as great an economy as possible, and various offices, central and local, were abolished or, where possible, amalgamated, while officials, high and low, were considerably reduced in number. At the same time the general transaction of business in every department was made more business-like and the heads of bureaus and sections were given wider competency with an eye to greater efficiency. Further decentralization of control was then planned and, as a result many government institutions, such as provincial hospitals, middle-grade schools, and meteorological stations, were transferred to the jurisdiction of provincial offices. In April, 1925, a Railway Bureau was newly established as an independent organ for the management of the state railways, which had again come into the hands of the administration on expiry of the contract entered into between the

Government and the South Manchuria Railway Company.

The classification of government offices and institutions in Chosen existing at the end of 1930 may be seen in the chart inserted here.

### **11. Non-discrimination between Japanese and Korean Officials**

At the time of annexation, regulations for the treatment of Korean civil servants with regard to grade and salaries were specially framed on those in force under the former Korean Government. In view, however, of the advance since made in their standard of living, as well as in their professional knowledge and efficiency, it was found necessary to give them better treatment, and their salaries were increased in 1913, and again in 1918, while their pensions, retiring allowances, and allowances to their bereaved families were also augmented.

A further change for the better was made in October, 1919, when the regulations relating to the status and pay of Korean officials were annulled, and in their stead those for Japanese officials were made to apply with the object of doing away with all objectionable difference between the two peoples in the same government service.

Until 1919 the post of school principal was always reserved to Japanese, but in October of that year revision was effected making it possible for competent Koreans to be appointed heads of public common schools, and up to the present scores of Korean teachers have been so appointed in the provinces.

The appointment of Korean judges was formerly made somewhat differently from that of their Japanese colleagues, while their authority was limited to dealing with cases in which, if civil, both parties were Korean, and if criminal, the accused were Korean, but in March, 1920, the regulations for courts of justice were revised, removing this restriction in their powers, and Koreans are now competent to take part in the examination of cases in which people of any nationality are involved.

Government-General of Chosen

- Governor-General's Secretariate
  - Private Secretaries Office
  - Councillors Office
  - Foreign Affairs Section
  - Archives Section
  - Accounts Sections
  - Census Section (Temporary)
- Home Affairs Bureau
  - Local Administration Section
  - Social Works Section
  - Public Works Section
  - Branches
- Financial Affairs Bureau
  - Internal Revenue Section
  - Budget Section
  - Financial Section
  - Customs Office
- Industrial Bureau
  - Agricultural Section
  - Fishery Section
  - Commercial and Industrial Section
  - Mining Section
  - Fuel Laboratory
  - Commercial Museum
  - Geological Laboratory
- Judicial Bureau
  - Judicial Affairs Section
  - Prison Section
- Educational Bureau
  - Educational Section
  - Compiling Section
  - Religious Affairs Section
  - Art Museum
  - Meteorological Observatory
- Police Bureau
  - Police Affairs Section
  - Peace Preservation Section
  - Censorship Section
  - Health Section
  - Cattle Quarantine Station
- Forestry Department
  - Management Section
  - Forest Products Section
  - Afforestation Section
- Land Improvement Department
  - Management Section
  - Irrigation Section
  - Reclamation Section
  - Detached Office of Government General of Chosen (Tokyo)

Affiliated Offices

- Central Council
  - General Affairs Section
  - Investigation Section
- Communications Bureau
  - General Affairs Section
  - Supervising Section
  - Insurance Section
  - Accounts Section
  - Engineering Section
  - Electric Works Section
  - Marine Affairs Section
  - Employees' Training School
  - Seamen's Training School
  - Postal Money Order & Savings Supervising Office
  - Post Offices
  - Telegraph Offices
  - Telephone Offices
  - Airports
- Railway Bureau
  - General Affairs Section
  - Supervising Section
  - Traffic Section
  - Operating Section
  - Construction Section
  - Mechanical Section
  - Accounts Section
  - Employee's Training School
- Monopoly Bureau
  - General Affairs Section
  - Branch Offices
  - Manufacturing Section
  - Branch Offices
- Provincial Office
  - Governor's Secretariate
  - Internal Affairs Department
  - Financial Affairs Department
  - Police Affairs Department
  - Public Hospitals, Public Schools
  - Municipalities (*Fiu*)
  - Counties-Villages (*Myou*)
  - Insular Offices
  - Police Offices
- Custom House
  - General Affairs Section
  - Surveillance Section
  - Customs Duty Section
  - Inspecting Section
  - Branch Offices
  - Coastguard Stations
- Law Courts
  - Supreme Court-Courts of Appeal-Local Courts
  - Public Procurators' Offices
- Prisons
  - Prison for Adults
  - Juvenile Prisons
- Police Training School
- Public Depositories
- Forest Stations
- Saisi-in Asylum Orphans Department, Blind & Deaf-mutes Department
- Elko Reformatory
- Central Laboratory
- Model Farms
- Seruin Manufactory
- Forestry Experimental Station
- Fishery Experimental Station
- Council of Inquiry into Customs Appeals
- Council of Investigation on Forest-lands
- Marine Court
- Council of Inquiry into Chosen Post Office Life Insurance
- Keijo Imperial University
  - Daigaku-Hyo-in
  - University Library
- Government Schools & Colleges
- Government General Library
- Council for Compiling of Korean History





## 12. Elimination of Formalism

The administration of Chosen tended formerly to place too much weight on formality. Prior to 1919, for instance, all government officials were required to wear uniform and even a sword, and their stiff appearance was much criticized as a symbol of militarism, but in August of that year the system was abolished except for the police, jailers, and Customs officers. Later on, however, for the bench and bar a robe modelled on that in use in Japan was prescribed, because it was considered necessary for law courts to present a dignified appearance when engaged in administering the law.

In order to avoid a tendency toward centralization of power, the Government in April, 1920, revised the regulations governing the powers of local authorities, and gave them wider competency with regards to matters formerly presented for decision to the highest authority. In December of the same year the regulations for the conduct of business were revised to simplify and speed up the handling of papers and documents.

## 13. Deference to Public Opinion

Previous to 1919 the number of newspapers permitted publication was limited to the few already in existence, and it was practically impossible for anyone to issue a new journal, but permission was given from December of that year for the publication of several new daily papers in Korean or in Japanese. Restriction of public meetings was also much mitigated, and even political meetings, the holding of which was formerly not permitted, were allowed in certain circumstances. Freedom of speech and meeting being thus generally recognized so far as it was not prejudicial to public order, associations of every description have since sprung up in large number throughout the country, including some purely political.

As the highest Korean consulting body, the Central Council is

convened several times a year to deliberate on questions presented to it by the Governor-General. In April, 1921, revision was made in its organization, by which, treatment of its members was improved, restriction in their voting power withdrawn, their term of service fixed, etc. At the same time influential men from every province were selected and added to it so as to make the institution representative of the entire country. The Central Council consists of 68 members with its own Vice-President under the Presidency of the Vice Governor-General.

#### 14. Making Known the Real Chosen

The Government-General has not been remiss in making Chosen really known to the outside world through the publication of periodicals, pamphlets, and illustrations. In 1920 a Board of Information was formed with the object of giving as much publicity as possible to the actual state of things in Chosen, and in 1922 this was joined to the Statistics Section and made an Investigation Section to carry on the work even more extensively. In 1920 a moving picture corps was also formed to make known the condition of Chosen to Japan and *vice versa*. The films, depicting the affairs and lives of both Koreans and Japanese, are copied and lent to the various districts, and are there shown to the people in the hope they will contribute to the cultivation of their social knowledge besides catering to their amusement and recreation.

#### 15. Respect for Native Customs

It is one of the ruling principles of the present administration to hold in respect Korean culture and usages and to make use of them indirectly, if not directly, in the way of law-making and administering justice. Acting on this principle, the Central Council has been charged with investigating the old customs and institutions of Chosen as part of its work. Since 1916 an authentic history of

Chosen has been in course of preparation by the Council, since Korean histories in existence were not free from error and were lacking in uniformity. In December, 1922, a compiling committee composed of noted scholars, Korean and Japanese, was appointed to deal more effectively with the elaborate task.

Respect for tombs is characteristic of the Korean people as a form of ancestor-worship, and very great importance is placed upon the selection of a site for burial, and this, strengthened by their superstition that the position of a grave affects the family destiny, either for good or ill, much good land was thrown out of cultivation. To combat these evils, regulations for control of burial grounds were introduced in 1912 requiring all to use the public cemeteries provided for them. These, however, were revised in 1919, to permit of the enlargement within prescribed limits of private burial grounds already in existence.

## 16. Prince Yi Household

At the time of the annexation, H. M. the Emperor of Japan, being mindful of the best interests of the Korean ex-Emperor and members of his family, sent a special message according them all the honours and privileges due to the Japanese Imperial family. The annual allowance for their maintenance was then fixed at 1,500,000 *yen* as guaranteed in the treaty of annexation, but this was increased to 1,800,000 *yen* in 1926 in consideration of the general rise in prices. The heir of the last Emperor of Korea was given the title of His Highness Prince Yi and his consort is Princess Masako Nashimoto, a Japanese Princess of the Blood, whom he married in 1920. On the death of his brother after a long illness, in April, 1926, he became head of the Korean Royal House and succeeded to the title. He received his early education in the Peers' School in Tokyo, and after that attended the Military School and the Military College, from which last he graduated with honours in 1923 and was then attached to the General Staff Office

in Tokyo. In May, 1927, the Prince and the Princess started on a foreign tour with their suite and after visiting many European countries returned home in March, 1928.

### 17. Korean Peerage

In August, 1910, an Imperial ordinance was issued concerning the peerage of Chosen, by virtue of which the blood relatives of Prince Yi, other than those accorded the status of Princes of the Blood, men of high birth, and those who had rendered distinguished service to the State, to the number of 76 in all, were created peers. At present the peerage comprises 7 Marquises, 3 Counts, 18 Viscounts, and 33 Barons, or 61 in all.



17. Reisu, the new thriving commercial port in southern Korea.







18. Rice export at Kunson.





### III. FINANCE AND ECONOMY

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#### 18. Introductory

One of the cardinal causes bringing Korea to the brink of ruin was her financial disorder. Both taxation and currency systems were badly disorganized, much of the annual expenditure was wasted and the Court and Government had no clear distinction between them with regard to finance. In many instances, government offices collected and spent at will while several important sources of revenue such as the ginseng monopoly, leasing of state lands, mining tax, granting of concessions, etc., were in the sole possession of the Imperial Household. Under these circumstances it was impossible for the State treasury to realize the estimated income, and the compilation of an annual budget became impossible. So when Japan came to assist Korea it was only to be expected that serious attention should first be paid to the financial situation.

As a sequel to the agreement concluded between Japan and Korea in August, 1904, Baron Megata was appointed financial adviser. He applied himself to the task of restoring to order the confusion in finance and the result of the work made itself felt during the protectorate period. To mention some of the important reforms introduced by him; the gold standard was adopted in order to secure a uniform currency, a central bank was established to act as the national treasury and was empowered to issue convertible notes, while various banking organs were set up in the chief centres for the promotion of business interests. In addition to these, the financial law was vigorously enforced in the compilation of the budget, the system of taxation was improved to obtain an increased revenue by the imposition of a more equitable burden on the people, the method of levying taxes was corrected so as to root out the vicious practice of extortion, the ginseng monopoly and other revenue sources, formerly

monopolized by the Imperial Court, were turned over to the Government, and a clear distinction between Imperial and State finance was effected. By these means gradual improvement in the financial condition was made possible and the country was rescued from the threat of bankruptcy. All this, however, meant a heavy addition to the budget quite beyond the national resources, so Japan came to the rescue by making advances amounting in all to some 13,200,000 *yen* free of interest and for an indefinite period, and in this way equilibrium in the annual account was maintained during the next few years.

On the establishment of the present régime, great economy was exercised by unifying the management of various administrative affairs, but, with a view to providing for new enterprises most necessary for the development of the country, the budget framed for 1911 rose to over 48,740,000 *yen*, or twice that of the preceding fiscal year. After that, advance was yearly witnessed in the annual account, and especially is it to be noted that the amount leaped at a bound from 77,000,000 *yen* in 1919 to 124,000,000 *yen* in 1920 owing to the expansion of cultural works in connection with the government reform. Thus large expenditures were yearly made for the administration of the peninsula after the annexation, but as the sources of revenue were continually found to be slender in meeting them, public loans were raised for the securing of economic development, such as roads, railways, harbours, etc., and a subsidy was also received from the home Treasury to cover the shortage.

In 1923 the Government-General practised rigid economy and to some extent in 1924 also. It was, however, found difficult to secure financial equilibrium, and were existing conditions allowed to continue it was plain that the next fiscal year would witness a serious deficit in the budget. So, following the retrenchment policy of the home Government, it was decided to effect financial readjustment on a most extensive scale, and this took concrete form in the discharge of a large number of officials and in the temporary shelving of various projected enterprises. The budget for 1925 was then estimated at 178 million *yen*, exclusive of 42 million *yen* for railway operation—

which work devolved upon the Government-General in that fiscal year. Less railway expenditure, this showed a decrease by 7 million *yen* as against the budget for 1924 which amounted to 142 million *yen*. The budget has expanded apace in recent years owing to the institution of various cultural enterprises and in 1930 showed 239 million *yen* for both revenue and expenditure, showing increase by 200% on 1920 and 500% on 1911.

During the year under review the money market was very dull on account of the general fall in the price of commodities. Although the ban on gold was lifted and gold bullion was transferred to foreign markets, the financial circles of the country remained inactive because of the slow demand for loans by the business world. The Government, as well as private concerns, began practically no new enterprises, and the Bank of Chosen adopted a low interest policy.

## 19. Budgets

### Budgets from 1911 to 1931

Year	Revenue			Expenditure		
	Ordinary	Extra-ordinary	Total	Ordinary	Extra-ordinary	Total
1911	24,067,583	24,674,199	43,741,782	27,891,437	20,850,345	48,741,782
1920	69,347,820	55,450,649	124,798,469	67,209,819	47,107,041	114,316,860
1921	96,121,029	66,353,179	162,474,208	101,697,602	60,776,606	162,474,208
1922	101,547,184	56,577,433	158,124,617	102,739,997	55,384,620	158,124,617
1923	99,914,288	46,092,937	146,007,225	102,060,768	43,946,457	146,007,225
1924	102,383,844	40,316,315	142,700,159	106,208,526	36,491,633	142,780,159
1925	142,521,064	34,561,318	178,082,382	136,867,730	41,214,652	178,082,382
1926	151,041,757	43,446,157	194,487,914	143,001,596	52,486,318	194,487,914
1927	165,773,875	45,136,236	210,910,111	150,879,909	60,030,202	210,910,111
1928	179,844,009	42,830,012	222,674,042	161,873,281	60,800,761	222,674,042
1929	195,975,003	50,877,840	246,852,843	176,558,644	70,294,199	246,852,843
1930	202,057,540	37,672,243	239,729,783	186,672,827	53,056,956	239,729,783
1931	106,321,537	32,602,080	238,923,617	186,628,483	52,295,134	238,923,617

Note: The decrease in ordinary account for 1918 is due to the fact that the management of the State railways was entrusted to the South Manchuria Railway Company in that year.

## Budgets for 1928 to 1931

Items	Year	1931	1930	1929	1928
<b>Ordinary Revenue</b>					
Taxes . . . . .		42,735,020	43,734,066	45,055,531	42,629,766
Stamp Receipts . . . . .		11,398,815	11,078,259	11,454,872	11,454,872
Receipts from Government Undertakings and Properties . . .		149,126,971	144,710,006	136,793,131	122,613,856
Miscellaneous . . . . .		3,060,731	2,535,209	2,668,523	2,145,536
<b>Total . . . . .</b>		<b>206,321,537</b>	<b>202,057,540</b>	<b>195,975,003</b>	<b>179,844,029</b>
<b>Extraordinary Revenue</b>					
Loans (Public & Other) . . .		13,500,000	12,500,000	24,800,000	19,000,000
National Treasury Grants . . .		15,473,914	15,473,914	15,473,914	15,473,914
Miscellaneous . . . . .		3,628,166	9,698,329	10,603,926	8,356,099
<b>Total . . . . .</b>		<b>32,602,080</b>	<b>37,672,243</b>	<b>50,877,840</b>	<b>42,830,013</b>
<b>Grand Total . . . . .</b>		<b>238,923,617</b>	<b>239,729,783</b>	<b>246,852,843</b>	<b>222,674,041</b>
<b>Ordinary Expenditure</b>					
Prince Yi Household . . . . .		1,800,000	1,800,000	1,800,000	1,800,000
Government-General Offices . .		3,820,457	4,654,477	4,891,605	4,768,550
Justice and Prisons . . . . .		7,816,864	8,258,021	8,254,330	7,705,468
Provincial Offices . . . . .		30,172,090	31,392,868	31,347,229	30,261,191
Education . . . . .		3,481,947	3,634,992	3,702,615	3,287,289
Customs . . . . .		1,237,748	1,247,113	1,212,742	1,040,481
Monopolies . . . . .		27,642,599	26,704,114	23,665,348	22,781,320
Afforestation . . . . .		4,189,369	4,983,718	4,978,631	4,642,902
Communications . . . . .		13,483,205	13,659,279	13,395,705	12,665,278
Railways. . . . .		60,270,538	61,495,803	58,473,138	49,912,662
National Debt Service . . . . .		24,707,697	23,525,280	19,447,172	17,916,173
Reserves . . . . .		2,500,000	2,500,000	2,500,000	2,560,000
Miscellaneous . . . . .		5,505,969	2,817,159	2,890,129	2,951,967
<b>Total . . . . .</b>		<b>186,628,483</b>	<b>186,672,827</b>	<b>176,558,624</b>	<b>161,873,281</b>

(Continued)

Items	Year	1931	1930	1929	1928
<b>Extraordinary Expenditure</b>					
Investigations & Examinations . . . . .	Yen	898,810	921,853	580,849	550,228
Subsidies . . . . .	Yen	17,021,197	16,902,023	16,897,499	15,500,391
Building & Repairs . . . . .	Yen	2,884,895	3,088,228	4,573,110	3,479,064
Engineering Works . . . . .	Yen	8,182,553	10,190,341	10,335,096	8,869,902
Railways. . . . .	Yen	13,500,000	12,500,000	20,000,000	19,000,000
Arable Land Improvement . . . . .	Yen	4,716,357	4,974,705	5,608,105	6,104,818
Protection of Koreans Abroad . . . . .	Yen	824,796	819,647	916,819	925,949
Miscellaneous . . . . .	Yen	4,266,526	3,660,159	11,382,751	6,370,346
<b>Total . . . . .</b>		<b>52,295,134</b>	<b>35,056,956</b>	<b>70,294,199</b>	<b>60,800,761</b>
<b>Grand Total . . . . .</b>		<b>138,923,617</b>	<b>239,729,783</b>	<b>246,852,843</b>	<b>222,974,042</b>

Note: Items for local Police and sanitation do not appear in the list and the reason is that control of both was transferred to the provincial offices in the year 1921

## 20. Taxation

The principal taxes in Chosen were the land and household taxes, and these two supplied the bulk of the national revenue, but not only was the incidence of them grossly unfair but the assessors usually resorted to making false reports from selfish motives, the result being that only a portion of the amount actually collected reached its final destination—the national treasury. From early times it was the rule for Koreans to pay their taxes in kind, but in 1894, when a reform was introduced in the government machinery, it was ordained that payment should be made in money, Nevertheless, this brought about no change in the popular desire for taxdodging nor less of roguery practised by venal officials.

Early in the protectorate régime, therefore, revised regulations for tax collection were issued, by which revenue officers were



pecially stationed at various important places and put under the immediate supervision of the Financial Department. Later in 1909, land registers were prepared in order to make clear which lands were taxable and in whose possession they were, that the tax might be properly imposed, and evasion of it rendered impossible, and at the same time honest inquiry brought to light many "concealed lands" resulting in increase in revenue without adding a cent to the burden on the people.

After the annexation the same policy was followed, that of essaying to maintain evenness of assessment and certainty of collection without burdening the people with undue levies, but as expenditure greatly increased through expansion in various government enterprises, increase in general taxation was unavoidable, but this was always made in careful proportion to the economic capacity of the people themselves. Revenue offices in existence were abolished and all business pertaining to taxation was placed under the charge of local authorities.

Not long after the annexation the compilation of new cadastre books and maps was completed, and this made possible a more exact and equitable collection of the land tax in the country. In 1913, the custom of collecting the tax from tenant-farmers was discontinued, as it was quite unreasonable from the legal standpoint, and the landowners were held directly responsible for its payment. Meanwhile, a land survey of the entire country was undertaken, and the work being finished in 1918 the land tax was completely remodelled, and in lieu of levying the tax according to class and locality, a single rate was fixed at 1.3 per cent. of the land value. In 1922, revision was made in the land and urban land taxes, and both were increased through financial necessity, the revised rates being 1.7 per cent. of the land value for the former and 0.95 per cent. for the latter. The result of this reform was seen in the estimated income from the land tax for 1919 amounting to some 11,120,000 *yen*, and for 1930 to over 15,600,000 *yen*, that is 45 % of the domestic taxes, placing it first in re-

venue items.

In 1921, consequent on the creation of a State monopoly in tobacco, the tobacco consumption tax became inoperative, but taking local conditions into account the cultivation of tobacco for family use was permitted on certain terms, the tax being abolished in 1929. As to the liquor tax, the receipts from it were only 200,000 *yen* in 1909, the first year of its enforcement, but have now increased to over twelve million *yen*, making them occupy a very important place in the annual account.

Household and house taxes existing from former times were transferred to provincial offices in 1919 to help meet the expansion in local finance. The ship, fishing, salt and ginseng taxes were all abolished in 1920 because assessment of them involved much time and labour, while the receipts from them were very small. The mine products tax was revised in 1918, and exemption from it was granted to important minerals, such as gold, silver, lead, and iron, in order to encourage their increased output. The mine-lots tax was also revised in 1921 so as to make it fall lightly on holders during a prospecting period, and was reduced to half the fixed amount for a period of three years following the grant of a mining permit.

The following taxes have been introduced since the annexation:

A war-profits tax on corporations and individuals obtaining large profits during the European War. This ceased to operate upon the signing of the peace treaty of Paris.

The registration fee in 1911 and applied to corporations only, but later revised to take in registration of immovables, ships, seamen, juridical persons, trade names, mining rights, and foundation mortgages.

The corporation income tax in August, 1916, Conditions in Chosen, however, necessitated issue of new regulations concerning this tax, and this was done in 1920. Though mainly based on the Japanese system, they provide for certain exceptions, and companies engaging in the iron industry or working certain chartered

mines are exempt from the tax.

The exchanges tax in April, 1921. This is imposed on both Exchanges and bill-brokers, the rate being 10 % of the brokerage charged by the former, and 0.05 % of the contracted amount for the latter.

The sugar consumption tax in April, 1919, at 50 % of that in Japan, but in 1922, from financial necessity it was raised to the same level as in Japan, except on sugar-beet molasses. In the same year the Japanese stamp duty was enforced. It is levied in small amount on the preparation of deeds and books certifying the creation, transfer, or change of property right,

The business tax and the unearned increment tax in March, 1927, following the change in Japan. The former is levied on certain profitable businesses, 24 such being specified, and the latter on the interest on public bonds and industrial debentures, the rate being 2/100 of the interest accruing from them.

Receipts from domestic taxes and from *Yoktun* or leased State lands in recent years are given below :

Description	1930	1929	1928	1927
Land Tax . . . . .	15,614,037	14,819,584	14,049,198	14,903,291
Urban Land Tax . . . . .	—	—	521,731	533,465
Income Tax . . . . .	1,114,722	1,199,528	1,340,975	1,212,142
Exchanges Tax . . . . .	147,637	175,214	194,274	179,370
Liquor Tax . . . . .	12,321,268	13,229,789	12,830,115	11,223,265
Tobacco Cultivation Tax . . . . .	—	254,116	354,640	393,945
Sugar Consumption Tax . . . . .	3,181,858	3,095,766	2,592,894	2,726,240
Business Tax . . . . .	1,590,022	1,516,967	1,384,676	1,252,725
Unearned Increment Tax. . . . .	314,882	265,623	272,284	254,830
Mining Tax . . . . .	572,206	619,434	587,635	532,405
Bank of Chosen Note Emission Tax . . . . .	—	5,792	—	138,052
<b>Total . . . . .</b>	<b>34,856,632</b>	<b>35,181,871</b>	<b>34,128,422</b>	<b>33,248,834</b>
Income from <i>Yoktun</i> lands . . . . .	158,319	371,291	583,466	896,053

Note: In 1929 the urban land tax was combined with the land tax.

## 21. Customs Tariff

At the time of annexation the Government announced that the existing tariff in Chosen would be left as it was for the next ten years. Early in 1912, however, the duty on goods for export to Japan and other countries was abolished with the exception of eight items, such as wheat, beans, cattle, hides, iron, etc., and even these were freed after April, 1919, while with regard to imported goods, coal, horses, and sheep were placed on the list of free imports, and certain goods requisite for the iron industry were also admitted free. In 1913, certain materials imported for use in manufacturing articles for export were made free of duty, more than ten such articles being specified, and that same year Custom Houses were established at various points on the frontier along the upper Yalu and the Tumen.

In August of 1920, the grace of ten years promised to foreign countries having expired, a new tariff system modelled on the one in Japan was enforced, and although it was the intention of the Government to annul the tariff between Japan and Chosen for promotion of their common economic interests, it was difficult to do so at once on the Korean side since the duty on Japanese goods to Chosen formed an important source of revenue, so it was retained until April of 1923 when it was found possible to abolish it, save on liquors and textiles.

### Receipts from Customs Duties

1930 . . . . .	10,284,813	1923 . . . . .	9,211,000
1929 . . . . .	10,716,000	1922 . . . . .	15,620,000
1928 . . . . .	10,410,000	1921 . . . . .	16,309,000
1927 . . . . .	10,946,000	1920 . . . . .	11,165,000
1926 . . . . .	13,361,000	1919 . . . . .	16,870,000
1925 . . . . .	10,781,000	1914 . . . . .	4,140,000
1924 . . . . .	9,311,000	1910 . . . . .	3,606,000

## 22. State Property ("Yoktun" lands)

During the Yi Dynasty Post Stations were established in each province solely for the purpose of carrying the officials on business trips and official despatches. Each Post Station had a certain number of postmen and posthorses. These men and horses were supported by the produce of the Royal land which they called "yokto" (or post land). The King also kept border guards along the frontier regions and gave them land to live on. This land was called "tunto" (or land for the border guards).

Now this system of "yokto" and "tunto", better known as "Yoktun" lands, was abolished in 1894 and it has ever since been handled as state property.

These lands were found in all the provinces and were estimated to cover 103,000 chobu in area, but careful investigation showed their total area to be over 126,000 chobu, and after the conveyance of over 10,000 chobu to the Oriental Development Company as payment for the 60,000 shares in the company subscribed for by the Government-General, and by the addition of certain other lands belonging to the State, the area of these lands at the end of March 1920 amounted to over 116,500 chobu in all, consisting 54,877 chobu of upland, 41,839 chobu of paddy land, 3,636 chobu of residential land, and 16,148 chobu of marsh and other land.

But there was a growing demand by the tenants for the sale of their leaseholds to them, so it was thought advisable to meet this demand to apply the proceeds from their sale to the furtherance of undertakings for the welfare of the people in general, such as enlargement of the educational system, investigation and encouragement of water-utilization and agriculture, subsidies to light railways and so on, and in 1920 the sale, by instalment system, of 491,495 chobu (1 chobu=2.45 acres) in area, was made to their tenants, numbering 137,858, payment to be made in ten yearly instalments.

During the ten years of the selling contract, a progressive





19. Panoramic view of Kaipo (Songdo), the Capital of  
"Koryo" Kingdom (918-1392)







20. Ginseng Roots, used as medicine.



21. Ginseng cultivation near Kaijo (Songdo)



discount of 10 % was allowed on the original tenancy fee from the second year. It is worthy of note that these tenants are nearly all Koreans.

In 1930, the total receipts by the sale of these "yoktun" lands was 1,353,315 yen.

## 23. Government Monopolies

### a. Ginseng

Ginseng, as a medical herb, is a very important product of Chosen. It has long been regarded in the Orient as a wonderful cure for many diseases, and Korean ginseng, especially that raised in the vicinity of Kaijo, the former capital, is considered the best ginseng in the world. Medical ginseng is obtained from the root of a plant carefully tended for six years, and according to the process of preparation is divided into two classes, red and white, the former enjoying greater public favour and fetching a high price as it is made from a "select" variety by an elaborate method. The chief customer for red ginseng is China where it is greatly prized and sells at a good profit, and for this reason it was made a Government monopoly, but in 1899 it fell into the hands of the Household Department and formed an item of the Crown property. At the end of 1907, however, the Government regained control of it and placed it under the Finance Department, and in July, 1908, a ginseng monopoly law was enacted.

Unfortunately, during this time the annual production of ginseng suffered greatly from a fatal blight which visited the plants, so along with the reform made in the management of the monopoly every measure was taken to prevent the visitation of noxious insects, and after the annexation the Government specially encouraged its cultivation in designated districts by introducing many improved methods, as well as by providing funds at low interest. In October, 1920, a new ginseng monopoly law was published in order to secure more profitable management.

## Ginseng Cultivation

Year	Area	Raw Root	Prepared Product	Receipts
	<i>Tsubo</i>	<i>K'ch</i>	<i>K'ch</i>	<i>Yen</i>
1911 . . . . .	14,345	7,719	2,300	119,000
1918 . . . . .	125,213	67,813	19,144	2,029,000
1919 . . . . .	195,620	103,989	26,002	2,082,000
1920 . . . . .	319,321	116,508	29,694	2,544,000
1921 . . . . .	371,328	136,066	36,266	2,102,000
1922 . . . . .	475,339	163,053	40,571	1,269,000
1923 . . . . .	419,788	166,282	46,022	2,225,000
1924 . . . . .	397,850	141,983	38,546	2,152,000
1925 . . . . .	303,713	112,988	31,629	2,658,000
1926 . . . . .	230,368	109,759	29,369	2,768,000
1927 . . . . .	332,102	154,237	41,540	2,444,000
1928 . . . . .	327,491	197,340	50,901	3,067,000
1929 . . . . .	334,479	165,897	54,099	2,482,000
1930 . . . . .	336,918	170,709	62,097	2,449,463

Note: Raw root is known as water ginseng and prepared product is chiefly red ginseng.

## b. Tobacco

Smoking is universal among Koreans, so the cultivation of tobacco was found all over the land to meet the large domestic demand for it. The former Korean Government sought to make tobacco a big item of revenue and issued a tobacco tax law in 1909, which, however, fell far short of the expectation formed of it. In 1914, a new tobacco tax was initiated by the present régime, and at the same time some limitation was made as to districts in which tobacco factories might be established.

The importance of a State monopoly in tobacco had long been recognized by the authorities, and was at last instituted in the year 1921 with the following exceptions:

I. The manufacture of rough-cut tobacco was allowed as a private business, because if immediately prohibited many licencees would be

deprived of their livelihood, and besides, the Government factories were not in a position to fill the public requirements.

2. Leaf tobacco was allowed sale by private dealers for the time being for the good of people accustomed to smoke the leaf whole.

3. Private cultivation of tobacco was permitted to native farmers for their own use in view of the fact that there was a large number of them still licensed to enjoy that privilege.

4. To protect the monopoly no person is allowed to import tobacco in any form, except a limited quantity for private consumption of some particular kind other than those put on sale by the monopoly.

Tobacco manufacture in Korea was undertaken for the first time in 1903 by the Korean-Japanese Tobacco Company, and at the time the monopoly was enforced there existed some thirty firms at work, the largest among them being the East Asia Tobacco Company which was able to supply nearly 80 % of the home demand. The Government then bought out the existing companies, and manufacture of tobacco under the new system was started in July, 1921. The old premises taken over, however, were found too inadequately equipped for the work, and temporary improvement had to be effected before it could be fairly begun. Meantime, as the first step toward thorough reconstruction, decision was taken to build the most up-to-date factory possible in Taikyū. The building was started in 1922 and completed in 1923.

There are three species of tobacco grown in the country, namely, Korean, Japanese, and yellow or American, of which the first far surpasses the other two in production. The Monopoly factories are situated in four centres, Keijo, Heijo, Taikyū, and Zenshu, and the number of hands employed in them is over 3,000 of whom 1,500 are males, including 90 foremen, and the rest females. For the protection and relief of the workers, a Mutual Aid Association was established in March, 1922, to give help in case of death, injury, illness, etc., and to provide a bonus for retiring workers. Another association has been organized among themselves with the object of supplying their daily wants on moderate terms.

All tobaccos manufactured by the Monopoly Bureau are sold to



a wholesale company in Keijo with 24 branches and 300 sub-branches, and by it are distributed to licensed retail dealers, numbering 60,000, throughout the country, but this system is about to be changed for direct sales from the Bureau.

#### Tobacco Monopoly Receipts

	1930	1929	1928
	Yen	Yen	Yen
Monopoly Cigarettes & Cut-tobacco . . . . .	31,693,010	33,747,000	32,126,000
„ Leaf-tobacco . . . . .	557,526	749,000	468,000
Japanese Cut-tobacco & Cigarettes . . . . .	78,146	94,000	10,000
Foreign Tobacco . . . . .	44,954	68,000	80,000

#### c. Salt

From early times the manufacture of salt in Chosen was chiefly by means of forced evaporation, but the great consumption of fuel made the cost of production too high for the native salt to compete with the cheap Chinese import. In 1907, the Korean Government established an experimental salt field at Shuan near Jinsen for production by means of the sun's heat. The result was so encouraging that it was decided to make the manufacture a government undertaking, and in 1912 the construction of salterns covering 88 *chobu* at Shuan and of another larger set of 770 *chobu* at Kworyo Bay near Chinnampo was completed. Later on these two salterns were enlarged, and their total area reached over 1,200 *chobu* in 1920. The Government then planned the establishment of more salterns covering 2,600 *chobu* along the coasts of the three provinces of Keiki, South Heian, and North Heian within seven years from 1920, and of these new areas, 1,240 *chobu* are already completed.

The production of salt is on the increase year by year with the maturing of the pans, and now amounts to 250 million *kin* a year, though it still fails to meet the domestic needs by over one-third, leaving the balance to be supplied by import. Up to the year 1921 good table-salt had to be imported from Japan and

elsewhere, but in that year a refinery was set up at Shuan, and the market for its output proving very favourable, the capacity of the plant was enlarged in 1922.

The native production of salt is far short of satisfying the general demand, hence about half of the demand is supplied by foreign salt. In 1930 salt consumed amounted to 405,000,000 *Kin* valued at 3,665,000 yen of which 168,000,000 *Kin* valued at 1,578,000 yen was imported from Japan and foreign countries.

It is to be noted that foreign salt cannot be imported without the authorisation of the Government. The Monopoly Bureau controls its importation and sale.

**Income from Salt Monopoly (in thousands)**

1930	1929	1921	1911
405,000 <i>Kin</i>	203,000 <i>Kin</i>	114,000 <i>Kin</i>	3,380 <i>Kin</i>
3,665 <i>Yen</i>	1,630 <i>Yen</i>	1,120 <i>Yen</i>	180 <i>Yen</i>

**d. Opium**

As a result of the strict control on the part of the Government-General, the habit of opium smoking has been considerably reduced. But, instead of opium, morphine-injection is still indulged by some vagrants and not a few have become addicts.

The Government-General also prohibited the use of morphine, but, because dishonest merchants supply morphine by various subterfuges, the enforcement of the law is difficult.

The Government-General, therefore, for the sole purpose of reducing morphine addicts, decided to monopolize the manufacture and sale of morphine.

In September 1929. the business of opium purchase was transferred from the Police Bureau to the Monopoly Bureau. Accordingly a morphine manufactory was erected within the compound of the Monopoly factory at Keijo, and the manufacture of morphine was started in March 1930. The manufactured morphine is sold to

designated pharmacies to be used for medical purposes.

Further information with regard to the use of narcotics may be found in the chapter on public hygiene.

#### Morphine Manufacture in 1930

Quantity of Production of Raw Opium...1,255 Kilogram (less water)

Percentage of Morphine.....10.55 %

Manufacture	{	Morphine (Salt).....	141 Kilogram
		Diacetyl Morphine (Salt).....	78     ,,

Sale.....	{	Morphine (Salt).....	{	Quantity...122.     ,,
			{	Value.....94,102 yen
	{	Diacetyl Morphine (Salt)....	{	Quantity...63 Kilogram
			{	Value.....47,657 yen

## 24. National Debt

Prior to 1925, notwithstanding the exhaustion of financial resources, the old Korean Government had never floated a public loan, nor had the Treasury itself any credit on which to do so, even had such been considered. How to rescue the country from its imminent bankruptcy was a burning question, and the authorities at last realized there was no other alternative than to resort to a national loan. So in that year, on the suggestion of Baron Megata, the eminent Japanese financier, exchequer bonds for 2,000,000 *yen* were floated in Tokyo and the proceeds appropriated to balancing the deficit in the annual account. With this as a beginning, loans were successively raised to obtain funds for various enterprises specially demanded at the time, and the total of these loans amounted to some 32,000,000 *yen* in all, of which 1,500,000 *yen* was advanced by the Japanese Government free of interest, and the rest at a low rate of interest by various banks. Moreover, from 1908 onward, loans totalling 13,000,000 *yen* were advanced by the Japanese Government for unlimited periods, and free of interest, to meet the increase in the cost of administration. On the other hand, a public loan service was established to make adjustment of

all these obligations, and on the eve of annexation in 1910 the net balance of the national debt stood at 45,590,000 *yen*.

As a natural sequel to the annexation, the redemption of the loans made by the Tokyo Government became unnecessary, and the total debt to be borne by the Chosen Administration was thus reduced to 21,000,000 *yen*. As the annual revenue of the peninsula, however, was still inadequate to meet the expenditure on various new continuous undertakings, recourse to public loans became unavoidable, and the maximum amount of national bonds issuable by the country was fixed at 56,000,000 *yen*, but the imperative need of providing for expansion in public enterprises necessitated increase in the amount each year, especially since 1918, and in 1919 it was fixed at 119,000,000 *yen* and in 1926 at 293,000,000 *yen*. The outstanding debts of the country now amount to 388,000,000 *yen*.

## 25. Banking

Banking on a modern system was first introduced into Chosen in 1878 when the Dai Ichi Ginko of Tokyo established a branch office at Fusan. Later on, the Juhachi Ginko of Nagasaki opened branches at Jinsen and Gensan, chiefly to transact business in exchange for the benefit of Japanese residents in the country. After the China-Japan War the Japanese banks mentioned above extended their activity by opening branches in Keijo and other centres, while two native banks, the Chon-il (later renamed the Korean Commercial) and the Hansong, came into being in Keijo.

In 1902 the Dai Ichi Ginko was authorized to issue bank notes for circulation within Chosen by virtue of an agreement entered into with the Government, and in 1905, on the recommendation of the Japanese financial adviser, was entrusted with the handling of State money and the adjustment of the currency, and recognition was given to the unlimited circulation of its bank-notes. Next, a joint warehouse company and a note association were formed in Keijo under Government patronage, the former to facilitate the

movement of merchandise and the latter, transactions on credit among merchants. In 1906, to promote economic development in the provinces, agricultural and industrial banks were formed in several of the principal towns, the Government taking shares in them or granting them loans free of interest, and the same year a third native bank called the Han-il was founded in Keijo.

In 1906, the Oriental Development Company was established by arrangement between the Japanese and the Korean Governments with the specific object of encouraging exploitation of the national resources of Chosen by supplying funds and other facilities for that purpose. A joint-stock enterprise with a capital of 10,000,000 *yen*, now increased fivefold, and empowered to issue debentures to the extent of ten times its paid-up capital, it has its head office in Tokyo and branches in various parts of Chosen and Manchuria. The Company has been engaged from the beginning in many productive enterprises in co-operation with the Government, and has rendered useful service in the transformation and improvement of Korean agriculture, though at times it has exposed itself to severe criticism.

In 1907 local credit associations called "*Kinyu Kumiai*" or Financing Associations were organized on a membership system with the specific object of accommodating small farmers with necessary funds on easy terms, and each association was granted financial aid by the Government. In 1918 the rules were revised so as to admit of membership being extended to small traders in towns, and in the same year a *Kinyu Kumiai* Union was formed in each province to supervise the business and to look after the interests of all in the same province. These Provincial Unions are in turn controlled by a central organization in Keijo. Since its inception the system has been found of great service to middle-class people, so much so that the associations, ten in number at the outset, have multiplied until there are now as many as 644 throughout the country.



## Kinyu Kumiai

Year	Associations	Members	Paid-up	Government	Deposits	Advances	Reserve
			Capital	Grant			
			1,000 Yen	1,000 Yen	1,000 Yen	1,000 Yen	1,000 Yen
1910	120	39,051	—	1,200	—	779	61
1920	400	244,374	2,551	2,804	10,098	32,336	1,098
1927	575	446,576	7,064	3,542	6,614	85,177	9,620
1928	597	538,407	7,509	3,662	74,089	91,381	10,890
1929	621	588,560	8,561	3,777	76,892	104,932	12,295
1930	644	671,844	9,010	3,857	80,128	123,368	13,133

In 1909 the Bank of Korea was founded in Keijo as a *de jure* central institution capitalized at 10,000,600 yen, and to it was transferred all the functions belonging to a central bank hitherto performed by the Dai Ichi Ginko. After the annexation the Bank was renamed the Bank of Chosen, Chosen being the ancient name of the country and restored to use under the new régime, and branches were opened by it one after another in important places. Nor was its sphere of activity confined to the peninsula, for many branches were opened in Manchuria where it enjoyed free circulation of its notes, and even entered North China and East Siberia, ending in a great deal more business being done by it in these outside fields than in Chosen itself. The Bank also made loans to China according to the Government policy, and opened an agency in New York with the view of facilitating exchange operations and of utilizing the American money market in the interests of Chosen and Manchuria. Stimulated by the steady expansion of its business, the Bank increased its capital to 40,000,000 yen in 1918, and to 80,000,000 yen in 1920, while recognition was given to increase in its maximum limit of note issue as occasion demanded; but owing to the continued business depression the Bank suffered severe losses and was compelled in 1925 to reduce its capital by one-half.

In former times, when there was wide financial disparity between the Japanese and the Koreans, different rules were followed in the establishment of a new bank in Chosen according to whether it was Japanese or Korean. But their business relations becoming



closer it was thought advisable to make the rules identical, and, so that co-operation by both peoples might be the more facilitated, the regulations relating to banks were revised and unified in 1912.

Since then, encouraged by the economic growth of the people in general, and especially influenced by the war-time boom, many local banks have been established in the country. During this time, however, the agricultural and industrial banks in existence, though possessed of numerous branches, were found much too weak to cope with the increasing demand for funds, their capital all told being only 2,600,000 *yen*, so in 1918 they were all combined and merged into the Industrial Bank of Chosen under special government protection, with a capital of 10,000,000 *yen*, which has since been trebled.

The banking organs have thus made systematic development and are aiding the economic and financial activities of the peninsula. Besides these various establishments, private organs for monetary circulation, such as mutual credit societies and trust businesses, have grown up in many quarters and are actively at work. The table below shows the general condition of the business done by the various banks having their head office in Chosen during recent years compared with 1910.

#### Banking

Description	1930	1929	1928	1927	1926	1925	1924	1910
Banks . . . . .	16	17	18	18	18	18	19	11
Branches . . . . .	154	151	139	139	133	136	136	59
Capital Subscribed . . . . .	1,000 Yen 101,425	1,000 Yen 103,425	1,000 Yen 99,250	1,000 Yen 102,275	1,000 Yen 102,275	1,000 Yen 102,275	1,000 Yen 143,475	1,000 Yen 12,550
Capital Paid-up . . . . .	60,991	61,471	55,280	56,950	59,375	58,850	84,150	7,080
Government Shares . . . . .	1,963	1,962	1,962	1,962	1,963	1,963	3,462	434
Loans by Government . . . . .	2,825	2,825	2,824	2,824	2,825	2,838	2,848	2,634
Reserve Fund . . . . .	14,464	12,385	10,367	9,514	8,065	7,024	16,771	366
Debentures Issued . . . . .	242,158	199,685	177,223	173,445	144,837	135,976	118,800	960
Deposits . . . . .	226,563	241,408	248,343	200,381	193,092	217,597	275,878	18,355
Loans . . . . .	457,557	420,460	475,446	381,123	372,195	429,361	409,300	37,912
Net Profit . . . . .	6,430	6,418	2,847	6,178	5,687	4,592	7,665	—

## 26. Currency

In old Korea there existed no definite system of coinage, and a bronze coin called *yopchun* was the sole money circulating among the people, but this had the drawback of being subject to frequent fluctuation in market value and proved unfit as the medium of exchange. In 1894 the silver standard was adopted, and seven years later was changed to the gold standard after the example of civilized countries, which, however, was not put into active operation. The Government, driven by financial stress, then started an excessive issue of nickels, and with it counterfeiting developed, with the result that the credit of the coin fell and stability in the prices of commodities was destroyed. In 1905, when financial reforms were started under the direction of the Japanese financial adviser, the regulations providing for adoption of the gold standard were revised and put into effect the same year. The minting of new coins was then begun and the free circulation of Japanese money officially recognized, while the mischievous nickels were rapidly withdrawn from circulation.

After the annexation the Government decided to make the currency system of Chosen identical with that of Japan. From March, 1911, to the end of 1917, the withdrawal of old Korean coins amounted to 8,954,000 *yen* odd, and it was then estimated that of the coins in circulation amounting to some 69,600,000 *yen*, the value of Korean coins was only 2,502,000 *yen*, so on the first of April, 1918, the Japanese coinage system was enforced in full in Chosen and the circulation of Korean coins was prohibited after the end of 1920, the Government engaging itself to exchange them for Japanese coins during the succeeding five years, except that the *yopchun* was still recognized for the time being as a subsidiary coin in consideration of popular conservation.

As for bank-notes in Chosen, they were first issued by the Dai Ichi Ginko in 1902. Three years later the note was acknowledged as legal tender and given free circulation in the peninsula, but this

privilege of note-issue was turned over to the Bank of Chosen on its foundation in 1909. After 1911 the bank-note was allowed free circulation in Kwantung Province and the South Manchuria Railway Zone, replacing the Yokohama Specie Bank notes which had been circulating in these districts, and after 1918 the maximum amount of note-issue against securities and of excess issue was very considerably raised.

At present the currency of Chosen is practically the same as that of Japan, the only difference being that the Bank of Chosen notes take the place of the Bank of Japan notes. The Bank of Chosen notes are issued against gold coin, gold and silver bullion, and Bank of Japan notes, and also against bonds and commercial papers of a reliable nature. The amount of money in circulation, which was only 29,000,000 *yen* at the time of annexation, has increased each year as shown below :

#### Amount of Currency in Circulation.

	Coins	Bank of Chosen Notes	Total
1919 . . . .	¥ 13,000,000	¥ 121,000,000	¥ 134,000,000
1920 . . . .	13,000,000	85,000,000	98,000,000
1921 . . . .	9,000,000	101,000,000	110,000,000
1922 . . . .	10,000,000	71,000,000	81,000,000
1923 . . . .	22,000,000	68,000,000	90,000,000
1924 . . . .	9,000,000	87,000,000	96,000,000
1925 . . . .	10,000,000	74,000,000	84,000,000
1926 . . . .	8,000,000	76,000,000	84,000,000
1927 . . . .	8,000,000	83,000,000	91,000,000
1928 . . . .	8,000,000	87,000,000	95,000,000
1929 . . . .	13,000,000	82,000,000	95,000,000
1930 . . . .	8,000,000	64,000,000	72,000,000

## 27. Trade

Chosen has a favourable position commercially in the Far East. Surrounded, by Japan to the east, Manchuria and Siberia to the north, and China to the west, its trade can be pushed with advantage in any direction it pleases, once the country is developed

enough to do so. Prior to annexation the total trade of Chosen amounted to something like 50,000,000 *yen*, but after that it steadily expanded along with the development of traffic services and banking facilities, and especially during the European War expansion was made to meet the greater demand for Korean products abroad.

The import trade has made constant increase, though not at quite so rapid a rate as the export. After the outbreak of the Great War it suffered a slight depression for a time, but soon recovered owing to the general growth of enterprises promoted by the influx of Japanese funds, as well as to the improved purchasing power of the people, and not only daily necessities but building and other industrial materials were imported in large volume. On the whole, it may be said that the exports consisted of raw materials and the imports of manufactured articles.

Nothing tells of the economic power of the country more eloquently than the trade figures. In 1911, the year following the annexation, the total amount of trade reached 72,000,000 *yen*, the export trade accounting for 18,000,000 *yen* and the import 54,000,000 *yen*, but it had risen in 1919 to as much as 505,000,000 *yen*, or 221,940,000 *yen* in export and 283,000,000 *yen* in import, showing respectively twelve and five times the figures for the year 1911. In 1920 the post-war depression set in and the total fell considerably. But in 1921 it began to revive, and in 1929 reached 768,157,000 *yen*, showing increase by some nineteen times in export, seven times in import, and ten times in total over the trade of 1911.

Owing to the worldwide depression the total again fell to 633,000,000 *yen* in 1930. It shows, however fourteen times in export, seven times in import, and nine times in total over the trade of 1911.

Year	Export to			Import from		
	Foreign Countries	Japan	Total	Foreign Countries	Japan	Total
1930 . . . .	1,000 Yen 25,852	1,000 Yen 240,694	1,000 Yen 266,547	1,000 Yen 88,854	1,000 Yen 278,194	1,000 Yen 367,048
1929 . . . .	32,773	309,891	345,664	107,767	315,325	423,093
1928 . . . .	32,147	333,829	365,978	118,181	295,839	413,990
1927 . . . .	28,133	330,791	358,524	113,943	269,473	383,417
1926 . . . .	24,779	338,175	362,954	123,933	248,235	372,169

Year	Export to			Import from		
	Foreign Countries	Japan	Total	Foreign Countries	Japan	Total
1925 . . . . .	24,341	317,288	341,630	105,388	234,623	340,011
1924 . . . . .	22,379	306,660	329,031	97,776	211,817	309,593
1923 . . . . .	20,403	241,262	261,665	98,338	167,452	265,790
1922 . . . . .	17,489	197,915	215,404	95,798	160,247	256,045
1921 . . . . .	20,884	197,393	218,277	75,898	156,483	232,381
1920 . . . . .	27,639	169,381	197,020	106,174	143,112	249,286
1919 . . . . .	22,098	199,849	221,947	98,158	184,918	283,076
1918 . . . . .	18,697	137,205	155,902	43,151	117,273	160,424
1917 . . . . .	20,236	64,726	84,962	31,396	72,696	104,092
1916 . . . . .	14,854	42,964	57,818	22,675	52,459	75,134
1915 . . . . .	9,319	40,901	50,220	18,159	41,535	59,694
1912 . . . . .	5,616	15,369	20,985	26,359	40,753	67,115

The trade of Chosen covers a wide sphere of activity embracing the principal countries of the world. Japan, having by far the largest interests in the peninsula, heads the list with 90 % of the export and 70 % of the import, making 80 % of the total. The order of comparative importance of foreign countries concerned in the trade is: China and Russia for export, and China, the United States, and England for import.

Countries	Export to				Import from			
	1930	1929	1928	1927	1930	1929	1928	1927
China . . . . .	1,000 Yen 24,577	1,000 Yen 34,745	1,000 Yen 31,421	1,000 Yen 27,283	1,000 Yen 60,944	1,000 Yen 73,058	1,000 Yen 81,086	1,000 Yen 89,953
Asiatic Russia . . . . .	27	38	46	122	1,004	1,083	858	466
India . . . . .	4	6	18	22	2,219	4,193	3,947	1,867
Dutch Indies . . . . .	72	101	30	81	4,848	6,347	7,397	5,646
French Indo-China . . . . .	62	30	33	98	2,828	3,303	2,887	336
England . . . . .	62	3	130	30	2,461	3,747	5,151	4,983
Germany . . . . .	2	1	4	1	1,710	2,074	3,584	844
United States . . . . .	210	341	204	140	8,613	9,802	8,313	8,208



## Value of leading exports in 1928-1930

Articles	1930	1929	1928	Articles	1930	1929	1928
Rice . . .	109,664	148,815	183,730	Cotton . . .	7,546	6,809	6,140
Beans . . .	18,433	23,268	24,639	Cocoons . . .	2,166	4,380	3,869
Fish . . .	11,207	13,742	13,366	Raw silk . . .	16,834	20,142	16,250
Laver . . .	1,996	4,319	2,597	Graphite . . .	1,011	1,233	1,156
Sugar . . .	4,758	5,603	5,707	Coal . . .	2,327	2,840	2,707
Hides . . .	1,623	2,762	3,285	Gold ore . . .	1,073	1,944	1,891
Fish oil . . .	2,701	5,891	4,516	Iron ore . . .	1,474	1,676	1,545
Red ginseng . . .	3,152	2,380	1,719	Cattle . . .	2,901	3,548	4,840
Timber . . .	2,327	4,139	4,852	Fertilizers . . .	9,649	9,976	7,228
Seaweeds . . .	920	1,350	1,506				

## Value of leading imports in 1928-1930

Articles	1930	1929	1928	Articles	1930	1929	1928
Rice . . .	10,120	14,202	9,714	Ceramics . . .	2,255	2,922	2,912
Millet . . .	21,393	20,865	25,488	Iron . . .	16,144	12,130	16,888
Beans . . .	1,842	2,970	3,324	Machines . . .	17,627	16,698	16,005
Flour . . .	5,878	6,911	6,873	Timber . . .	5,742	8,871	10,852
Sugar . . .	7,367	9,285	8,701	Leaf tobacco . . .	2,353	2,470	4,145
Saké . . .	1,230	1,577	1,400	Petroleum . . .	2,791	5,795	4,284
Beer . . .	2,273	2,385	2,417	Matches . . .	1,269	1,690	1,895
Salt . . .	1,245	1,465	2,133	Ginned cotton . . .	5,502	7,222	6,508
Woollen cloth . . .	5,440	5,989	5,651	Cotton yarn . . .	5,227	6,718	7,166
Silk tissue . . .	13,577	13,898	13,880	Wild silk . . .	6,403	9,277	11,056
Rubber shoes . . .	3,324	4,219	5,594	Cotton cloth . . .	32,143	37,430	44,580
Paper . . .	6,928	7,671	8,124	Hemp cloth . . .	4,169	5,783	6,153
Coal . . .	10,347	10,237	10,380	Fertilizers . . .	18,973	23,928	19,482
Cement . . .	3,693	3,133	4,091				



## IV. EDUCATION

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### 28. Introductory

Korean education of old centred in the study of Confucianism, and had as its ultimate goal the making of public servants. Pupils first entered the *Sohtang*, or private common school, found in every town and village, and there they were taught to read and write Chinese ideographs. For a more advanced course, they went to the *Han-gyo*, or public higher school established in every district, after which they proceeded to the Songkyun Kwan at Keijo, the highest seat of learning in the country. Graduates from this institution sat for the civil service examination, and successful candidates were eligible for official positions for all time. This system prospered for centuries, but on its abolition in 1894 these old schools continued in name only, with the exception of the *Sohtang*, which still carried on as before. In 1895 the Korean Government, following the advice and example of Japan, introduced a new educational system, and founded elementary schools throughout the country as well as a few higher schools in Keijo, but these failed to bring about gratifying results owing to insufficiency of the right men for teaching and management. About this time there came into being many private schools, most of which were maintained by foreign Christian missionaries as part of their mission work, and by the year 1905 the number of such schools had increased considerably.

On the advent of the protectorate régime in 1906 steps were taken to reform the existing system, laying particular stress upon elementary education, and this was mainly effected through the agency of Japanese educationists. After annexation, public education in the country was established on modern lines in conformity with the principles set forth in the Imperial Rescript on Education, and



22. Ice-hockey on the Han river, Keijo.



23. Golf-links, near Keijo.



year by year new schools were started to keep pace with the increased desire of Koreans in general for education. While the system in Chosen is similar to that in Japan, the difference in language and customs of the two peoples has necessitated division of the schools into two kinds, as far as elementary instruction is concerned, one for Koreans and the other for Japanese. However, the course of study, qualification of graduates, and connexion with higher schools are now quite the same in both cases. At present, as educational organs, elementary and secondary, for Koreans there are common schools, higher common schools, and girls' higher common schools, and for Japanese, primary schools, middle schools, and girls' high schools. For the co-education of both races there are industrial schools, normal schools, and industrial schools.

After the government re-organization in 1919 great efforts were put forth for the spread of fuller education, and for greater proficiency and efficiency on the part of educationists. For this purpose, teachers of elementary schools were called to attend periodic courses held in Keijo or elsewhere, or sent to Japan on tours of observation, and teachers of higher schools were sent to Japan to specialize in their own studies, or ordered abroad to make inquiry into occidental educational conditions. For the supply of secondary school instructors promising candidates are sent to Japan for proper training, while a number of scholars are yearly sent abroad for further study, preparatory to a professorship in the university or other high institution in this land.

As already alluded to, in an old school for Korean children nothing but Chinese writing and classics was taught, and pupils derived from them little practical knowledge of daily life, whereas in founding modern schools these subjects were given much less importance, and new subjects, such as arithmetic, geography, the Japanese language, etc., were included in the curriculum. Koreans at first objected to the comparative neglect of their time-honoured studies, and above all regarded with a great deal of suspicion the teaching of Japanese, which was made too much of in their eyes,

believing it was being forced on their children in order to supplant their own language, and thus destroy their national characteristics. This misconception prevailed widely among the conservative people, and difficulty was encountered in enrolling pupils, despite the fact that tuition and text-books were all free. As a result of the earnest and patient efforts of the authorities to remove all misgivings, the people gradually came to the realization of their true motives, and pupils began to seek modern education in ever increasing number.

### 29. Meiringaku-in (Confucian Institute)

In April 1930, the Government General, with the object of preserving the ideals and spirit of Confucius and for the cultivation of characteristic oriental morals established the Meiringaku-in (Confucian Institute) in Keigaku-in (formerly known to Koreans as the "Songkyun Kwan.") which was from earliest times the highest seat of learning for the study of the Confucian classics. The President of the Keigaku-in was also appointed President of the new institute and many professors of arts and literature in the Keijo Imperial University have been appointed as lecturers.

This institute gives a two years' course in Confucian classics and Confucian doctrines, besides Japanese Language and civics. Candidates are privileged to teach Chinese classics at secondary schools. There is also a post-graduate course of one year for those who desire to continue their studies.

### 30. Reforms in Educational System

Following on the annexation, an educational ordinance and its pertinent regulations were promulgated in 1911 to secure a sound educational system for Chosen. But the passage of ten years wrought so remarkable a change in every aspect of Korean life that the system fell far behind the actual needs of the country. Consequently, in 1920 a special committee was organized to study what reforms

could be made in the system in force, and the decision reached by it served as the basis for the formation of a new educational ordinance which was issued in 1922. By the new ordinance not only were more educational facilities provided but the educational standard of Koreans was raised, on the principle that they should be afforded equal opportunity under one and the same system as the Japanese.

Elementary education in the country is not compulsory as it is in Japan. Though it is still given in institutions separately established for Koreans and Japanese, the rules governing them with reference to period of study, entrance qualification, subjects of study, hours of instruction per week, etc., are essentially the same, the only points of difference being :

- 1 The Korean language is made an obligatory subject for a school for Koreans, while it is optional in a school for Japanese.
- 2 The teaching of Korean history and geography is particularly emphasized in a school for Koreans.
- 3 Different text-books may be used in view of the difference in language and customs of the two peoples. For instance, a school for Japanese children may use text books compiled by the Educational Department in Japan, and a school for Korean children may use those compiled by the Chosen Administration.
- 4 The period of study in a Korean common school is six years as a rule, though it may be shortened to five or four under special conditions. A higher or supplementary course of two years may be attached to this school.
- 5 A public primary school for Japanese is founded and maintained by a School Association, and a public common school for Koreans by the School Expenditure Body of a municipality or district.

In drawing up the scheme for common education, the establishment of separate schools for Koreans and Japanese was maintained, but the new ordinance provides for converse admission by the two schools of children in certain circumstances, so that Korean pupils may be admitted to a public school for Japanese, and *vice versa*.



This method already existed to some slight extent, but more Korean pupils are availing themselves of this new provision.

### 31. Elementary and Secondary Schools

Establishment of common schools for Koreans was started in 1906, the first year of the protectorate régime, and by the year 1910 they numbered 100 altogether, including 40 private schools of good standing. After annexation, their number increased annually by leaps and bounds, and the year 1919 saw a total of 482 throughout the land. As they were mostly situated in the towns, common education in rural districts spread but slowly, and to remedy this shortcoming, a plan was formed to augment these organs in the course of four years from 1919 at the rate of at least one school to every three villages, and in 1922 there were about 900 public common schools distributed in the provinces, thus doubling the number for 1919. Provision was made for further increase as far as means would allow, and the number reached 1,643 in 1930.

The first public school for primary education of Japanese in Chosen was founded at Fusan as early as 1877 under the name of Kyoritsu Gakko, and this was followed by the establishment of similar schools in Keijo and a dozen other towns in which Japanese were more or less numerous. The number of schools grew rapidly after the introduction of the protectorate régime until it reached 54 in 1908. At the beginning of the present régime some 120 schools were in existence, but the steady increase in them brought their number to as many as 463 in the year 1930.

For the secondary education of Korean boys there were in 1930 two public higher common schools in Keijo and one or more in each of the provinces, the total being fifteen. Of these, two were established before the annexation, and the remainder all date from the year 1916 onward. Besides these, nine similar schools were maintained by individuals or juridical persons, and for the secondary education of Korean girls there were six public and nine private

schools.

As secondary educational organs for Japanese boys and girls there are now eleven middle schools and twenty-four girls' high schools in Keijo and other towns. All the secondary schools have a course of five years for boys and four to five years for girls.

### 32. Normal Schools

Until quite recently there were no regular normal schools, their place being taken by teachers' training courses specially attached to government secondary schools but these failing to keep pace with the rapid expansion in primary education, a government normal school was started in Keijo in 1921 with a five-year general and a one-year special course. In 1922 a public normal school was founded in South Chusei Province with a course of three years for the training of common school teachers, and the following year found all other provinces following suit. Public Normal Schools in each province were abolished in March 1930 at the same time the Government Normal schools in Keijo, Heijo and Taikyū were enlarged and improved to meet the increasing need of training teachers. For the supply of female teachers a training course was opened in Keijo Normal School in 1925, and at the same time the training course specially attached to the Girls' Higher Common School in Keijo was dropped.

In the following table comparison is made of the educational organs existing at the time of annexation and those of to-day.

Education Statistics

Schools	1930		1919		1911	
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students
Primary School . . . .	471	67,404	380	42,811	128	15,509
Common School . . . .	1,831	450,457	482	89,288	172	20,121
Middle School . . . .	11	5,761	5	2,010	1	205

Schools	1930		1919		1911	
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students
Higher Common School . . . . .	24	11,093	12	3,156	5	819
Girls' High School . . . . .	26	8,295	11	1,905	3	515
Girls' Higher Common School . . . . .	16	4,422	6	687	2	394
Normal School . . . . .	3	1,295	—	—	—	—
Industrial School . . . . .	54	12,098	25	2,843	20	961
Elementary Industrial School . . . . .	75	3,223	73	1,650	3	93
College . . . . .	13	2,489	8	901	5	409
University Preparatory School . . . . .	1	304	—	—	—	—
University . . . . .	1	571	—	—	—	—
Non-Standardized School . . . . .	490	47,485	749	39,247	1,667	71,763
<b>Total . . . . .</b>	<b>3,016</b>	<b>614,897</b>	<b>1,751</b>	<b>184,498</b>	<b>2,006</b>	<b>110,789</b>
Kindergarten . . . . .	206	11,252	21	1,367	6	606

- (1) Besides these, the *sohtang*, old-fashioned native schools principally teaching the Chinese classics and brush-writing, still exist in large number throughout the country, but with the growing influence of modern public education they are becoming fewer every year.
- (2) Christian Mission and other private Schools are also included in this table.

### 33. Industrial Schools and Colleges

Industrial education in Chosen is still young. Since the annexation, however, the authorities are paying greater attention to this branch of Korean education, and as nothing is more essential than the cultivation of the habit of industry and economy among the Koreans, whose mentality is generally averse from labour, the work of these schools was so arranged that the practical and not the theoretical side of it received foremost attention. This arrangement was strongly accentuated in agricultural schools and though at the beginning pupils showed much distaste at the insistence on actual training, they gradually came to realize that there is dignity in manual labour.

In view of the need of industrial development the Government in 1930 strengthened its policy of increasing industrial education and besides improving existing vocational and industrial schools increased the total number to 129. These apart from those of college grade are mostly elementary industrial Schools and the remainder are agricultural commercial and fishery.

For higher vocational education in Chosen it was provided by law that schools for the purpose should have a course of three or four years, admit those over 16 years of age graduating from a higher common school or having scholarship of equal standard, and give instruction in advanced arts and sciences, but this was not acted upon until 1915, when the spread of secondary education made possible the enforcement of these regulations. The revision in the educational system in 1922 necessitated also the introduction of reform in the organization of government higher schools, and this was done on the principle of making them equal to those in Japan itself. At present there are five such schools, all in or near Keijo. (In addition, there are eight private institutions of college grade, four maintained by foreign Christian missions.)

1) Keijo Law College, formerly called the Law School, was under the control of the Korean Government, having as its object the training of judicial officials. In 1911 it was reorganized and in 1916 raised to its present status, It aims at giving special instruction in law and economics.

2) Keijo Medical College was first established in the days of the Korean Government as a department of the government hospital, and in 1910 was transferred to the hands of the present administration. In 1916 it was raised to its present status, and has in view the training of men in modern medical knowledge and ability.

3) Keijo Technical College has as its object the turning out of high-grade experts and managers for the industrial and engineering development of Chosen. It was founded in 1905 by the former Korean Government, and came under Japanese control in 1910. In 1916 it was raised to its present status, the courses offered being

weaving, applied chemistry, civil engineering, architecture, and mining.

4) Suigen Higher Agricultural-Dendrological School gives a special education in agriculture and forestry. The school was originally attached to the Model Farm at Suigen and was opened in 1906. After the annexation great improvement was made in its organization, and in 1918 it was raised to its present status, the work being divided into two courses, agricultural and dendrological.

5) Keijo Higher Commercial School had its origin in the Keijo branch of the Oriental Association School founded in 1907, becoming independent of the mother institution in Tokyo ten years later, with the special object of turning out men of affairs needed for the business development of this country. In 1921 the institution was reorganized under its present name, and in 1922 was transferred to the Government.

### 34. University

The plan of establishing a State University in Keijo was launched in 1922 and is now completed. As preliminary work a preparatory school was built in Seiryori, an eastern suburb of the city, and the school was opened in May, 1924. The period of study is two years, the work being divided into two courses, literary and scientific, and the entrance qualification is completion of the full course of a middle school or higher common school. The university itself, located in the north-east of the city, was opened in May, 1926, with graduates of the preparatory course as nucleus. It comprises, law, literature, and medical colleges and the study of oriental institutions, culture, and medicine will be a feature of the University.

### 35. Mission Schools and other Private Schools

The Government-General appreciates the educational work of the foreign missionaries for the younger generation of this country. From their first arrival in the country some fifty years ago they





24 (a). Keijo Girls' Public Common School.



24 (b). Ewha College for Women,





established schools of more elementary grades which have been gradually increased until now they have schools of college grade. They may be said to have been the pioneers of modern education here. The present work of the missions in education will be seen in the following table.

Mission Schools and Kindergartens December 1930

College	Secondary Schools				Elementary School		Kindergarten	Sohtang (Shodo) and Koshusho	Total	
	Higher Common	Girls' Higher Common	Industrial	Non Standardized	Common	Non Standardized				
Roman Catholic	—	—	1	—	6	8	4	10	29	
Presbyterian	1	—	1	1	15	3	128	59	94	
North Methodist	1	2	2	—	4	13	34	31	14	
South "	—	1	3	—	—	6	9	25	55	
Anglican	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	16	19	
Seventh day Adventist	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	—	9	
Oriental Mission	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1	
Salvation Army	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	5	
United Presbyterian and Methodist	2	—	—	—	1	1	4	1	—	
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>4(1)</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>190(2)</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>203</b>	<b>580</b>

Note: (1) Chosen Christian College, Soong Sil College, Severance Medical College, and Ewha College for Women.

(2) There are three Designated Schools i. e. of equal standing with Higher Common Schools.

(3) Sohtang is the name given to the old style Schools for elementary study of Chinese classics and brush writing. Koshusho is a term used to describe locally recognized educational institutes, in this table chiefly of elementary nature.

For the governing of private schools for Koreans special regulations were issued in 1911 and revised in 1915, but in 1920 further revision was made, by which all former restrictions were removed save for the inclusion of ethics and the national language (Japanese) as compulsory subjects in all private schools, and freedom was given them to include religious instruction in their curricula. Again in March, 1922, the regulations were revised in part by striking out certain

conditions for recognition of teachers in private schools that their engagement might be more facilitated, and at the same time a private school of secondary or higher grade was required to be incorporated as a juridical person so as to guarantee its proper maintenance. With the enforcement of the new educational ordinance and its by-laws in April, 1922, all accredited schools in existence were made subject to the new conditions, but private high institutions unable to fulfil the government requirements in regard to equipment and finance were allowed to work for a time under the old regulations.

### 36. Text Books

Concurrent with the formation of the special educational committee, another committee was specially organized late in 1920 to deal with the question of text books for schools in Chosen. This committee met early in 1921, and, after full discussion of measures to be taken for revision of the text books based on the propositions submitted by the authorities, reported the following resolutions:

- 1 A sub-committee shall be appointed to determine the use of the Japanese and Korean syllabaries, the writing side by side of Japanese and Korean, and the Korean translation in the text books.
- 2 Materials for text books shall be selected to suit the temperament and taste of the pupils.
- 3 Text books on morals shall be so compiled as to lay greater stress on example than precept.

Accordingly, a sub-committee was appointed for each item of inquiry, and for the writing of the Korean syllabary ten eminent scholars were specially chosen and entrusted with the task. It may be mentioned in explanation that Korean writing had never been brought under a uniform method, and although it was systematized for school use in 1912 there was still need for study and improvement, hence the importance of appointing the above committee.

In this way, compilation of the revised text books was undertaken in the hope of their being brought up to date in response to the needs of the times.

The total number of all text books required prior to the year 1919 was no more than a million, but, increasing very rapidly with the annual growth in school attendance, it reached over 2,660,000 in 1921, and 4,460,000 in 1923, after which, however, the demand being affected by the hard times, it fell to 2,955,000 in 1930.

### **37. Spread of Japanese Language**

After the annexation the universal use of the Japanese language was particularly emphasized, and Korean common schools were required to allot 9 to 12 hours a week to the language and also to make fair use of it in teaching other subjects, while higher schools were encouraged to use it as the ordinary medium for giving instruction in addition to making it one of the subjects of study. Night schools and classes for the teaching of Japanese to young men in the country were also formed in large number. Fortunately, the marked aptitude of Koreans for linguistic study, and the general interest in it shown by the people, have greatly aided the work. The proportion of Koreans more or less conversant with the language to the entire population was 7 per 1,000 in 1913; 33 in 1922; 76 in 1929 and 81 in 1930.

### **38. Encouragement of Korean Language Among Japanese Officials**

It goes without saying that knowledge of the Korean language is very useful for Japanese in dealing with Koreans, since in many cases grievous misapprehension arises from the lack of it. The Government, therefore, has specially encouraged Japanese officials in constant touch with the people to learn the language, and in 1921 introduced the system of giving extra pay to those proving

themselves effective. To qualify for this privilege the candidate must pass an examination held every year, and the number of successful candidates so far is 3,656 of whom some have been certified proficient without examination.

### **39. Koreans Studying in Japan**

In 1922, the regulations for Korean students in Japan were revised, thereby giving more freedom and encouragement to those going there to pursue their studies. At present they number about 4,000 the majority of whom are found in Tokyo. Those sent by the Government, however, are comparatively few, numbering forty six at present. They are generally chosen from among candidates finishing a secondary school course in Chosen or already studying in Japan at their own expense. As a matter of course, these students are not only supplied with necessary funds by the Government during the period they are in the colleges to which they have been sent, but on graduation they are offered positions in official or educational circles.

### **40. Education of Koreans beyond the Frontier**

Koreans living beyond the frontier now reach about a million and are largely found in communities of their own on the Chinese side of the Yalu and Tumen, in South Ussuri, and alongside the Chinese Eastern Railway in Manchuria. In olden times Koreans were prohibited by the Government from crossing the two rivers mentioned, so as to avoid all occasion for trouble and confusion on the frontier, and anyone doing so was condemned to death by the "across river" law.

Fifty years ago the enforcement of this ban became lax and the people took advantage of this to go over the frontier in increasing numbers. Although these emigrants were honest peasants in general, they had very few chances of enjoying the benefits of civilization

as they usually settled down in out-of-the-way regions, and their life in general was one of great hardship and insecurity owing to the presence of Chinese bandits and vagabond Koreans. So the Government decided to make provision for their protection as well as for their enlightenment.

In July, 1908, the Government founded a common school in Lung-Ching-Tsun, Chientao, as the first of its kind for the education of Koreans in the borderlands, This was followed, after annexation, by the erection of similar schools in several important places, and to them volunteer teachers were sent, free text-books supplied, and subventions granted to the amount of 200,000 *yen* in the year 1930.

#### 41. Art Exhibitions

Korean arts, though they show a brilliant record in the Koryo Era, began to decline in later years owing to the baneful effects of misgovernment, and toward the end of the Yi Era they fell into a most miserable condition. In recent years, however, signs of revival have appeared with the progress of general culture in the peninsula.

The authorities perceiving this new tendency, drew up a plan for encouraging the advancement of Korean arts, and in January, 1922, issued regulations providing for an art exhibition to be held once a year, the exhibits to be art of the oriental and western schools, and the judging committee to be composed of noted connoisseurs, both Japanese and Korean. The first exhibition was held in Keijo in June following, the exhibits numbering 217, attracting 2,800 visitors, and succeeding exhibitions were equally successful, the ninth one in May, 1930, showing 1,313 exhibits, visited by more than 22,000 art lovers. Each time medals or certificates of merit were awarded to those works showing special skill.

#### 42. Government Library

After long-continued effort to establish a Government Library in



Keijo the plan took definite shape in November, 1923, when regulations governing it were formulated, and the Library was completed and opened to the public in April, 1925. The collection of books, so far reaches over 40,000, while visitors to the Library average 22,000 a month, showing a tendency to increase.

### 43. Investigation of Historic Remains

The investigation of Korean historic remains was set on foot in 1909, and is still carried on under the present régime. The first stage being completed by the year 1915, its results were duly published, but as the work was confined to only a few of the many historic remains in existence, a five-year programme was next introduced for a similar undertaking to be carried on throughout the entire land. This was begun in September, 1916, and completed in March, 1921, during which time all sorts of ruins and antiquities representing the civilization of their own period were fully examined. Each year the reports sent in were published, and in illustration of them ten elaborate albums have already been compiled. In this way the most important and interesting relics in Chosen have been made known to the world, but there being still more to be done along this line a thirteen-year programme from 1921 onward was formulated.

In July, 1921, regulations were issued for the preservation of historic ruins and relics, requiring entry to be made of all those worthy of preservation in a register, new discoveries to be reported without delay, and official sanction to be obtained for their removal, repair, or disposal, and the number finding place in the register so far totals 385, while those put in repair and maintained at national expense or by government aid number 140 comprising tombs, mounds, monuments, edifices, pavilions, storeyed-gates, stone images, etc.

The Korean arts originally developed with Buddhism as their inspiration. It is a fact that in the palmy days of Korean Buddhism

various styles of architecture came into being, and not a few of the buildings remaining are now found very valuable as material for the study of ancient oriental arts. Even so, most of them were being allowed to fall into decay, so the Government arranged to have them properly cared for.

The Museum in which many treasures of ancient art are preserved, stands in the grounds of Keifuku or North Palace, Keijo. It was established at the time of the Products Exhibition held in 1915 to commemorate the fifth anniversary of the present régime. The exhibits are classified according as they are illustrative of the institutions, customs and manners, literature, religions, and arts of ancient Korea, and they now number some 10,800, including fine specimens of Japanese, Chinese, and Indian work.

Visitors to the Museum in Keijo during 1930 numbered 36,604 including 1,513 foreigners, averaging 3,050 a month.

The Archeological Museum in Keishu is of considerable importance in the study of early Korean arts and sciences. Many objects of great value have been discovered in and near this ancient capital of Silla.

In 1930, the museum was visited by 18,750 persons of whom 122 were foreigners.

#### 44. Meteorological Observatories

Meteorological observation in Chosen was first introduced by Japan in 1904. The central observatory is established at Jinsen and has branches at Keijo, Fusan, and eleven other centres, but as the country is still regarded as insufficiently served because of the great diversity of its physical features, certain municipalities, counties, and police stations were directed in 1914 to conduct simple forecasts, and to ensure accuracy and rapidity in observation, exchange of meteorological messages was started with the chief observatories in Japan, Taiwan, Kwantung Province, Hongkong, Manila, Vladivostok. etc. In the meantime signal stations were set up in different places in the peninsula, and in localities without such provision the police were required to publish the reports received by them for the use of the public.

## V. SHRINES AND RELIGIONS

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### 45. Shrines

The deification of her illustrious dead and erection of places of veneration to their memory have for ages been the custom of Japan, and the ceremonies held in those are treated by the Government as absolutely distinct from those of a purely religious nature. In August, 1915, regulations were promulgated relating to shrines to be established in Chosen and prescribing the form of the services to be observed, and at present there are 47 principal shrines with officiating priests appointed to them—to say nothing of those of a lower order. The greatest of these is the Chosen Shrine, recently constructed on the heights of Nan-san, Keijo, at which Ama-terasu O-mikami, the grand ancestress of the Imperial family, and also the late Emperor Meiji, who founded modern Japan, are venerated as national guardian deities. Apart from these, the Koreans have many places erected to the founders and most distinguished members of their own native dynasties.

### 46. Religions

#### a. Korean Religions

The entry of Buddhism into Chosen, according to Korean tradition, was about 370 A. D. It was originally introduced from China by a priest bringing with him a Buddhist image and the Sacred Books, and flourished greatly during the period of Silla and Koryu under the patronage of each dynasty. The religion, however, was subjected to great persecution on the rise of Yi Dynasty, when the building of temples was prohibited, the number of priests limited, and members of good families forbidden to enter the priesthood. At last it fell into disrepute and lost its hold on the populace, its priests



25. Keijo Imperial University.



26. English Cathedral, Keijo.



were treated as no better than mere mendicants, and its temples and monasteries, many of which offered the best examples of ancient Korean architecture, were left in ruins or allowed to decay. Such was the decline of Buddhism which had played a most significant rôle in the development of Korean culture, but this state of affairs ceased to continue after the annexation, for in September, 1911, a new religious ordinance was promulgated, removing former restrictions, giving freedom of propagation, protection to temples, and raising the status of the priesthood. Thus the cult began to revive after lying at a very low ebb for hundreds of years. At present there are 31 head and 1,344 branch temples with 5,614 priests, 1,006 nuns and 139,470 adherents including 70 Japanese.

There exist several religions of native origin though they are not recognized by the State as having the true marks of religion. Among them are the Tendo-kyo and the Jiten-kyo, each a mixture of Confucianism, Buddhism, and Taoism, the Taikyoku-kyo and the Jindo-kyo which worships Dankun, commonly accepted as the originator of the Korean race, and other sects which are simply superstitious beliefs. In prosperity, the Tendo-kyo leads with a following of about 80,000. The rest are hardly worth mentioning.

As in many countries the vicious custom of mixing up religion and politics prevailed in Chosen. During the four centuries of the Koryo era Buddhism exercised so baneful an influence over politics that the decline and downfall of it were largely due to that fact. This abuse is more clearly in evidence in the case of the Tendo-kyo, founded sixty years ago, for its founder was executed by the Government "for seducing the people by evil teaching," and his successor also met the same fate on account of his participation in the Tonghak rebellion in 1894. These and other instances show that the entry of religion into statecraft was no rare occurrence in Chosen, so it is not surprising that the independence agitation in 1919 carried with it a religious colouring.



### b. Religions from Japan

Shintoism (Way of Gods), the indigenous cult of Japan existing from earliest times, is a form of nature and ancestor worship with simple rites peculiar to itself, but its propagation in Chosen does not date very far back and its activities have chiefly been among Japanese residents. Of the several sects introduced the Tenri-kyo and Konko-kyo are found the most vigorous, especially the former, and, finding it necessary to work among Koreans as well, it has established a preachers' training institute in Keijo. At the end of 1930 the temples of all such sects in Chosen numbered over 193, preachers 351, and believers more than 78,000 of whom 11,000 were Koreans.

Of Japanese Buddhist sects, the Shin-shu was the first to start propaganda in Chosen, and its priests entered Fusan, the first and nearest port to Japan. Later, as other important ports were opened to trade, three other sects, the Jodoshu, Sodo-shu, and Nichiren-shu, sent men into the country, and after the annexation minor sects became eager to follow their example. At present there are nine sects working throughout the land, and at the end of 1930 their preaching houses numbered 373, priests 496, temples 107, and believers 263,000, of whom 7,800 were Koreans. As with Shintoism, their mission was primarily for Japanese, but in recent years they have begun to extend their work among the native population, and have founded educational and charitable institutions in some few centres.

### c. Christianity

Propagation of Christianity in Chosen owes its origin to an official mission sent to Peking by the Korean king in the latter half of the 18th century, which brought back with it a Roman Catholic Bible and other Christian books. With the central province as its stronghold Roman Catholicism gradually spread into the south, but as its doctrine ran counter to the native custom of ancestor-worship, it was placed under a ban in the reign of King Seiso, that is, in 1784,

when its converts were subjected to persecution, and its literature confiscated or denied entry, and though the ban was relaxed at times, it repeatedly met with great opposition and made little headway.

The first foreign missionary to enter the once hermit kingdom was a Frenchman named Pierre Maubant, who in 1833 made his way into Keijo and he was soon followed by two comrades. Owing to their devoted efforts the number of converts steadily increased, and the Government, alarmed at the rapidity with which the new faith gained influence among the people, issued a prohibition law in 1839, which led to the arrest and torture of converts, irrespective of sex or age, and many were even put to death, but nothing daunted, the evangelists still pursued their work. Not only did they endeavour to win souls through their teaching, but they printed and distributed tracts, and established schools and dispensaries, so that by the year 1863 the number of converts reached as high as 18,000, including not a few persons in authority, and at the same time the attitude of the Government toward them became much more lenient.

At the beginning of 1866 a Russian warship appeared at Gensan and demanded the opening of trade with Chosen. The Korean Government, not knowing what to do at this unwelcome event, desired the French missionaries to intervene, promising to give them unstinted freedom in their evangelistic work as a reward, but at this juncture a strong anti-Christian feeling arose among the high Korean authorities, and to reinforce it news was received that a wholesale massacre of Christians was being carried on in Peking and that the dreaded Russian vessel had suddenly vanished from sight. On this the Regent, having nothing to fear, changed his policy and decided to follow the reported Chinese example. He revived the prohibition law for that extirpation of all Catholics in the country, and it is said that during the persecution which followed, 30,000 people in all were martyred, including some French missionaries. After 1873, however, when the despotic Regent retired into private

life, the Catholic mission began to recover its lost influence, and in 1882 religious freedom was fully recognized as a result of diplomatic relations being established between Chosen and foreign nations.

It was in 1885 that Protestantism was first introduced into Chosen. In that year Dr. H. N. Allen, medical missionary of the American Presbyterian Church, North, reached this country, to be followed in the coming year by Dr. H. G. Underwood, of the same Church, and the Rev. G. Appenzeller and Dr. W. B. Scranton of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and these pioneers started churches, schools, and hospitals in Keijo, Heijo, and other towns. Subsequently, men from these and other missions arrived one after another, and to-day there are a dozen denominations of Protestantism engaged in the work of evangelization, and they apparently surpass Roman Catholicism in influence. The most flourishing is the Presbyterian Church, the Methodist coming next.

When Prince Ito was appointed first Resident-General in 1906 he saw the wisdom of co-operating with foreign missionaries for the true welfare of the Koreans, and so tried to come into close and cordial contact with them. He was on particularly good terms with Bishop M. C. Harris of the Methodist Church, North, and in one of the interviews with the Bishop the Prince said that, while of course he would attend to all political affairs, he should look to the missionaries for the spiritual guidance of the people, so that both working with mutual trust and assistance they might be able to fulfil their task.

When the wide-spread disturbance broke out in March, 1919, among the signatories of the independence declaration were a number of Korean Christian pastors and leaders, while the agitators included many professing Christians, and grievous misconception arose between Christian and non-Christian folk. This being a matter of great concern to the authorities earnest efforts were made to bring about a sympathetic understanding between these people, and opportunities were taken to convince the Christian side of the impartial attitude of the Government toward Christianity.

## 47. Administration of Religious Affairs

In regard to the administration of religious affairs in Chosen, a new office called the Religious Section was instituted in the Government-General in 1919, and in the following year the regulations relating to religious propagation were revised, whereby various procedures were greatly simplified and vexatious restrictions removed. Another reform effected in the meantime was the extension of the privilege to religious bodies to establish themselves as foundational juridical persons. Hitherto most church properties had been registered in the name of private individuals, and the method was attended with great disadvantage to those held responsible for them. Consequently, foreign missionaries long desired to have their mission properties recognized as legal persons, and this the Government finally decided to allow.

### Statistics of Christian Churches

	Foreign Missionaries	Salaried workers	Buildings	Full Members
(1) Korean.				
Roman Catholics (1831) . . . . .	127	233	388	101507
Presbyterian (1884) . . . . .	316	1338	2559	75237
Methodist (1885) . . . . .	164	443	893	20588
Anglican (1890) . . . . .	11	64	61	5492
Greek Orthodox (1900) . . . . .	1	1	1	31
Adventist (1905) . . . . .	28	179	126	2343
Holiness (1907) . . . . .	6	134	79	1954
Salvation Army (1908) . . . . .	33	177	129	4460
Independent (1911) . . . . .	—	—	22	1363
<b>Total</b>	<b>686</b>	<b>2569</b>	<b>4258</b>	<b>213,975</b>
(2) Japanese.				
Roman Catholics (1831) . . . . .	4	7	5	1027
Anglican (1890) . . . . .	2	5	4	483
Kumiai (Congregational) (1904) . . . . .	2	4	6	1168
Methodist (1904) . . . . .	1	20	22	1136
Nihon Kirisutokyo (Presbyt) (1906) . . . . .	2	11	16	1803
Salvation Army (1908) . . . . .	2	6	7	216
<b>Total</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>5,833</b>

N. B. The Presbyterian Church of Korea reports in addition to the above 51,248 catechumens, Probationers, associate members and 62,579 connected with organization but not enrolled. Similarly the Korean Methodist Church has 12,664 of the former and 25,318 of the latter. The Japanese Methodist church also reports 1973 and the Nihon Kirisutokyo 900 of the former.

## VI. CHARITY AND RELIEF

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### 48. Government Undertakings

Of the relief works undertaken by the authorities the more important comprise succour of sufferers from natural calamities, protection of the sick or dying on the road, alms to the decrepit, invalid, crippled, and disabled, care of orphans, education of the blind and deaf-mutes, etc., and for each of them a relief fund has been founded with the aid of the Imperial bounties granted on special occasions. Flood and drought are the two great disasters frequently visiting the country, and during 1919, when a long and severe drought prevailed in several of the provinces, the like of which had never been experienced for scores of years past, over ten million *yen* was defrayed from the national treasury and other sources to be expended in relief works for the sufferers numbering over half a million. Besides, every time a serious calamity occurs in Chosen some amount, according to the extent of damage, is donated from the Privy Purse for the relief of the stricken people, and this has been done many times since the annexation.

In 1930, the Government General granted a subsidy of more than thirty thousand *yen* toward the relief of sufferers from flood and drought.

Formerly, treatment of persons found sick or dying on the road devolved upon the nearest town or village office. This was rarely any great burden in the country districts owing to the infrequency of such cases, but it was far otherwise in the cities and towns where the traffic of strangers is more frequent, and the only cities provided with relief stations for the purpose were Keijo, Jinsen, and Taikyū. The authorities, therefore, encouraged benevolent persons, whether secular or religious, in the larger towns to establish private institutions of the same kind by promising to give them



financial help, and such now exist in Keijo and sixteen other centres.

For the nurture and education of orphans, the blind and deaf-mute, the Saisei-in or Charity Asylum in Keijo, was established in 1921 with a portion of the Imperial donation granted at the time. Since its foundation the Asylum has taken in nearly 1,000 orphans in all, the inmates in 1930 numbering 282, mostly Koreans. They are given a training in agriculture on the farm attached to the institution after finishing the common school course of six years. In the blind and deaf-mute department, three years training in acupuncture and massage for the blind and five years in sewing for the deaf-mutes is given to fit them for self-support, and there is no obligatory term of service imposed on them after their graduation. The blind number 33 at present and the deaf-mutes 67.

Free treatment of the needy sick is taken up by each government hospital in Keijo and provincial towns as part of its work, and for remote parts of the country, doctors from the nearest provincial hospital are sent out. Similar care is also taken for Koreans living beyond the frontier and lacking in medical provisions, and in 1918 a charity hospital was especially established in Chientao for their welfare.

Reformatory work in Chosen is of very recent origin, and regulations relating to it were issued in September, 1923, resulting in the establishment of a reformatory at Yeiko near Gensan under the name of Yeiko Gakko. At present the number of its inmates is 76, and they are given a training in carpentry, farming, or fishing, in addition to an ordinary schooling.

Social undertakings directed by the Chosen Administration were in the sole charge of what was known as the Second Section of the Internal Affairs Bureau until July, 1921, when the section was remodelled and renamed the Social Works Section, and this was followed by the formation of a similar office in many of the provinces. Since 1921 the amount of government subvention to private organizations for social works has been increased with a



view to helping on their development more effectively.

In view of the growing housing problem harassing cities in general, Keijo and Taikyū began to take the lead in erecting houses and renting them at moderate rates, and to regulate the prices of commodities public markets were established in the above-mentioned and other cities. Establishment of public bath-houses, public employment offices, personal advisory agencies, public pawnshops, lodging houses for labourers, people's luncheon-rooms, barber-shops, etc., has also been started in many of the principal centres.

#### 49. Private Undertakings

Apart from the Government undertakings and other private institutions, the country is greatly indebted to foreign Christian missionaries for its medical welfare. Most mission stations are provided with medical missionaries and nurses, and there are twenty five mission hospitals, including three leper homes. The excellent work of these leper hospitals has been recognized by the Throne, H. M. the Empress Dowager, and the Government-General. A sum of over 60,000 yen is granted yearly, in the form of a subsidy which amounts to about ten sen per patient per day. H. M. the Empress Dowager has graciously given 1,000 yen a year for five years, beginning from 1930, to each home. In 1930, Her Majesty was pleased to grant 6,000 yen to the three homes to be used for special comforts for the patients in addition to this other grant. His Majesty the Emperor has graciously been granting 500 yen a year to each home since 1925 which grant is to be continued, in this way encouraging the workers of various nationalities in their self-sacrificing work in the relief of the unfortunate people suffering from this particularly loathsome disease.

Of the general mission hospitals, Keijo has the largest and oldest of them known as the Severance Hospital, and attached to it is a Medical College in which doctors and nurses are trained. The hospital for Tubercular patients of the Northern Presbyterian Church

in Kaishu has been doing excellent pioneer work.

Besides the above mentioned, there are other religious organizations of philanthropic nature, among which may be mentioned the Roman Catholic Orphanages in Keijo, Jinsen and Taikyū, St. Peter's Orphanage of the Anglican Church in Suigen, the Keijo Orphan Asylums, the Daido Orphanage in Sensen and Tosan Infants' Hospital in Taikyū under the Presbyterian Church. Central Nursery in Kosu (Kongju) of the M. E. Church, and the Salvation Army Homes for Women and Children in Keijo.

The Buddhists maintain two orphanages, and there are eight other private orphanages of which the "Kamakura" and the "Meishinsha" are the best known. It is an interesting fact that the latter was founded by a chief of Police who started an orphanage in Seoul by gathering together the beggar boys and children wandering around the city without home. Once the elements of social annoyance, these delinquent children are now taught trades under the leadership of able masters so that they will be able to find pleasure and happiness in a decent way of life. 68 children are now happy, contented and appreciative of the efforts made for them.

#### Charity and Relief Organizations

Name	Number	Inmates	Budget for 1931
Orphanages . . . . .	29	4,855	249,683 <sup>Yen</sup>
Schools for blind and deaf-mute	7	345	90,096
Asylums for the aged and poor	9	272	12,133
Homes for sick vagrants. . .	19	1,224	46,663
Dispensaries . . . . .	55	53,864	456,836
Lepet Homes . . . . .	4	2,745	306,270
Homes for Exconvicts . . .	25	357	158,339
<b>Total . . . . .</b>	<b>148</b>	<b>63,662</b>	<b>1,320,020</b>

## VII. INDUSTRIES

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### 50. Agriculture

Chosen is essentially an agricultural country, eighty three per cent. of the entire population being engaged in agricultural pursuits of one kind or another. A mountainous country, like Japan, with few large plains, there is yet enough arable land not only to feed the people but also to permit of the export of a good part of its produce. Moreover, the soil, though not very fertile, is still fertile enough to support a thriving economic community if properly attended to; hence the vital importance of agricultural improvement to the welfare of Korean life. Yet the great majority of the people, keeping to their old method of husbandry, paid little or no attention to this point, and it was only after the protectorate régime was established that the need for it received any serious consideration. Since then, and more especially since annexation, the utmost efforts have been put forth by the Government for the modernization of the Korean agricultural system. As the country is mountainous and has to support a large and growing population, though one not half so dense as that of Japan, it naturally follows that the "intensive" method should be pursued through the application of scientific methods.

Keeping this in view the authorities set to work toward agricultural transformation of the country, and one of the initial measures was the establishment of Model Farms. During many years, at these institutions, most of which are situated in the outskirts of country towns, experts have been conducting scientific experiments in farming, sericulture, horticulture, and stock-farming, and the results of their work are made the basis of the Government policy as far as technique is concerned, whilst individual farmers and planters look to these experts for guidance.



27. Lumber rafts in virgin forests of upper Yalu.



28. Modern Bridge over the River Han, Keijo.



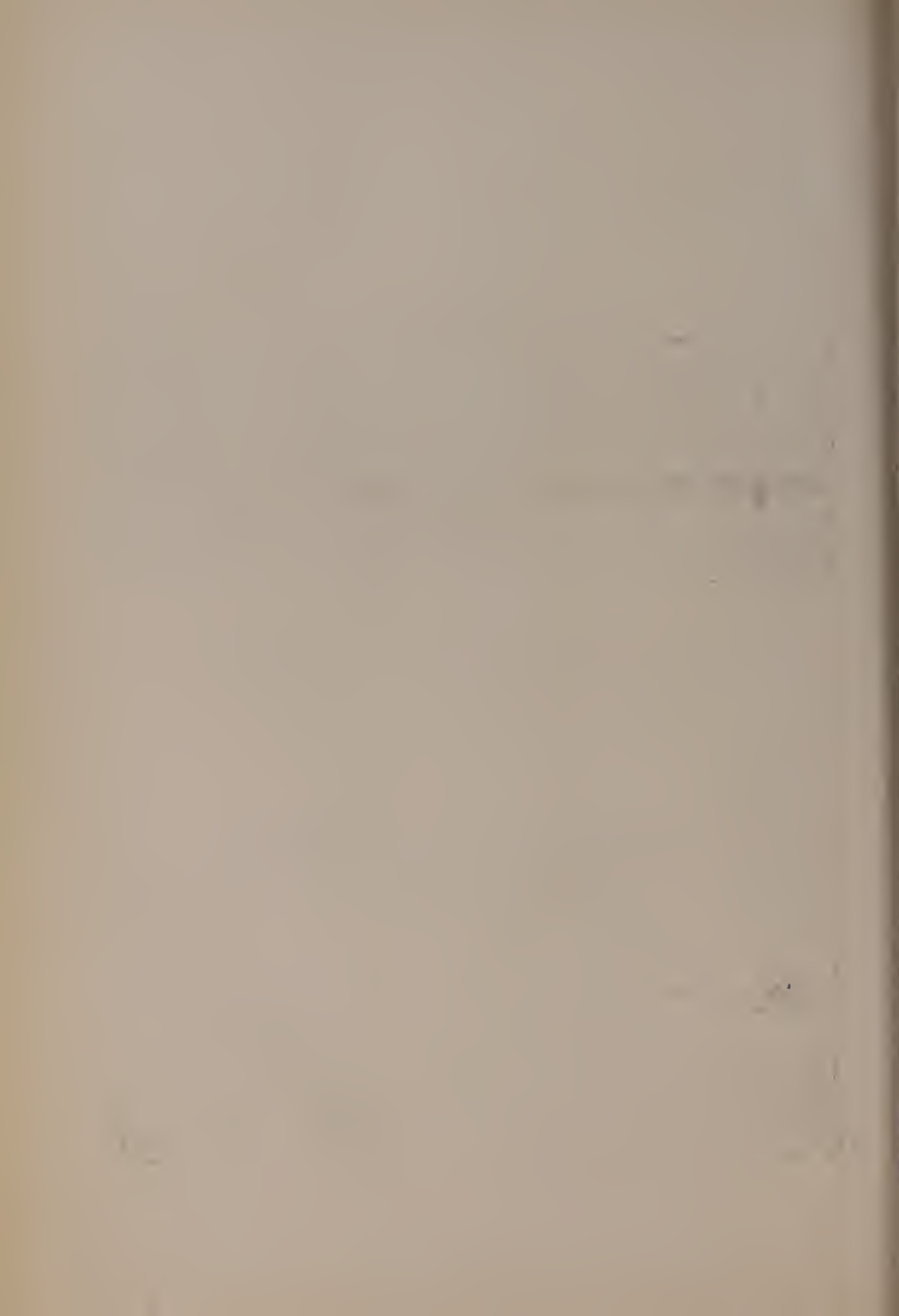


29. Commercial Museum, Keijo.



30. Government Dairy Farm at Suigen.





The Model Farm at Suigen was founded as the principal centre in 1906 by the Residency-General, and it has branches in several of the provinces. The Farm occupies an ideal site for an institution of such a nature and an extensive tract of land was appropriated to its use. It has been engaged from the outset in all lines of experiment and investigation of agricultural interest, and has contributed a great deal toward the promotion of agricultural development.

Various local organizations formerly existed in the country, having as their object monetary accommodation and co-operative undertaking of agricultural enterprises. These numbered over 500 with more than three million members, but as a whole they lacked unity and solidity and were often the source of scandal. To bring them under uniform and efficient management and thereby conduce to the general development of agricultural industry, regulations framed on those in force in the homeland were issued and enforced in March, 1926. They provided for the formation of Agricultural Associations in all towns and districts, and at the same time all kindred organizations (except those for live-stock) were ordered to merge themselves into the newly-formed associations.

According to the latest returns, the total area of arable land in Chosen is about 4,466,137 *chobu*, of which about one-third is taken up by paddy fields and the rest by dry fields. This represents about 20 per cent, of the entire area of the country, and averages 1.62 *chobu* per family. In the southern half of the country the area of paddy fields equals that of dry fields, while in the northern half the proportion is one to five.

Though the area of uncultivated lands is not completely ascertained, it is estimated at approximately a million *chobu*, comprising hillsides, marshes, and beaches, and these can be made more or less productive by terracing, draining, and reclamation. Since most of these lands are State-owned, regulations relating to their utilization were promulgated as early as 1907, by virtue of which such as belong to the State may be leased to those desiring

to reclaim them; they also provide that they may be transferred gratis or under easy purchase terms to successful cultivators on expiration of their leases.

Until recently Chosen had scarcely any system of irrigation. In her more flourishing days there existed irrigating ponds and dams in large number, but so consistently were they neglected during her era of maladministration that most of them disappeared or turned into deserted swamps. Since the entry of the Japanese into the country irrigation systems on an extensive scale have been initiated in various localities, and with the extension of reclamation works much land hitherto lying idle has been brought under cultivation. Thus, up to the present, about 50 per cent. of the total area of paddy fields has been provided with irrigation. The remaining 50 per cent. depends entirely upon the rainfall, and even in a successful year produces only half the yield obtainable from well-conditioned land. The encouragement of irrigation works is therefore being vigorously pursued.

In July, 1917, new regulations relating to irrigation associations were promulgated for the better irrigation, drainage, reclamation of waste land, etc. As many of them, however, found it difficult to do without financial aid, special regulations were issued in 1919 for subsidizing their works. Later on, under the revised regulations issued in 1920, the subsidies for land-improving enterprises were augmented, the amount ranging from 20 to 30 per cent. of the cost according to the kind of work to be done, and at the close of the fiscal year 1930 the number of associations actually in working order was 177 operating over an area of 216,943 *chobu*, while 35 others were actively engaged in construction works designed to serve an area of over 65,900 *chobu*, the total expenditure on all these enterprises at the end of the same year amounting to over 149,020, 000 *yen*. There still remain many tracts of land marked out for improvement.

Since the work of the irrigation associations have so obviously assisted the development of agriculture, the Government has always

encouraged their formation, but owing to the impossibility of their being in a position to serve the whole of the arable land in any immediate future it has permitted the existence of private undertakings. Since these works affect people in various economic ways, it is provided that official permission must be obtained before starting work. Owing to the rapid increase in population in Japan the supply of food is in danger of failing to meet the demand, and so the authorities have been tireless in encouraging increased production of rice in Chosen, and the total volume of Korean rice exported is now over ten times that exported in 1910, the first year of the present regime. This increase is largely due to improvement in the varieties grown and in the method of cultivation and fertilization.

Inasmuch as there is still plenty of room in Chosen to admit of increase in the yield of rice, the Government drew up a fifteen year programme in 1920 aiming at the improvement of some 400,000 *chobu* of undeveloped lands at an estimated cost of 120,000,000 *yen*, of which 48,000,000 *yen* was earmarked as subsidies for individual enterprises in that direction. To carry out the scheme, a Land Improvement Office was formed in the Industrial Bureau with an adequate staff of men to take exclusive charge of the work, and experts were detailed to the provinces to conduct basic investigation of those lands convertible into paddy fields by means of irrigation and reclamation. In the space of six years, that is, by the end of 1925, the area actually improved reached but one fourth of the estimated total, so to accelerate the progress of this all-important undertaking a revision of the programme was made. The revised programme, to be executed in 12 years from 1926 covering an area of 350,000 *chobu*, concerns itself with the improvement of that area and the method of its cultivation so as to secure increased production of rice, and the amount needed to effect this improvement is estimated at 325,000,000 *yen* including government subsidies to a total of 65,000,000 *yen*.

When this programme is fully executed the production of rice

will be increased by a minimum of 10,000,000 *koku* of which half at least will be available for export, thus doubling the present amount exported. Such a result, it is confidently expected, will greatly help in solving the food-supply problem in Japan and as greatly enrich the economic life of Chosen.

Along with advance in the production of rice, official inspection of rice destined for export became necessary, so that transactions in it might be creditably conducted, and in 1915 regulations for the purpose were promulgated, but these were revised in 1917 and again in 1921, by virtue of which the standard of the inspection system was raised and exportation of rice of inferior quality prohibited. Regulations relating to soja-beans were also enforced in the same manner. In this way the quality of the rice and beans produced in Chosen has been markedly improved, and they now enjoy high credit in the Japanese market.

In its efforts to put agriculture on a sounder scientific basis the government, both central and local, have used every endeavour to employ trained experts, and to place them throughout the country. Up to the end of 1930, 4367 qualified men were engaged, as follows.

Agricultural.....	1,937
Sericulture.....	760
Live stock.....	534
Land improvement.....	188
Forestry.....	948
	<hr/>
	4,367

The year 1930 was an unprecented year of plenty. The production of the country, especially of rice, silk cocoons, gold and coal showed a remarkable increase. But on account of the plentiful yield of rice in Japan Proper and Formosa the price of Korean rice fell heavily; hence there was a farmers' panic, while the effect of the release of the gold embargo, coupled with the business depression in America, brought down the price of cocoons to half that of the previous year. Other commodities also made heavy falls





31. Women picking upland cotton.



32. Farmers planting-out rice.





owing to the dull markets at home and abroad.

## 51. Agricultural Production

Agriculture in Chosen has of late developed so appreciably that the total value of the crops in 1930 amounted to 753,000,000 *yen*, of which 187,000,000 *yen* was exported, mostly to Japan, forming 94 per cent. of the total value of the export trade, and these items, when compared with 1910, the year of annexation, show a three fold advance in the former and more than a fourteen fold one in the latter. As in most other countries, by far the largest part of the arable land in Chosen is devoted to the growing of grain and pulse, of which the principal are rice, barley, wheat, soja-bean and millet.

Rice is the most important of all agricultural products. Its annual production, after having provided for all domestic needs, furnishes the largest and an ever-growing item in the export trade. In 1910 the area of rice-fields amounted to 1,350,000 *chobu* yielding a crop of 10,400,000 *koku*, rising in 1930 to 1,662,000 *chobu* and yielding 19,180,000 *koku*, its export during the same period making even greater increase from 798,000 *koku* to 4,915,000 *koku*. Such progress was made possible by the improvement introduced in the method of cultivation, in the selection of seeds and manure, and in irrigation and reclamation.

Barley and wheat are chiefly cultivated for home consumption. They are all autumn grown, and in the southern provinces, where irrigation works are common, are often raised in the paddy fields after the rice is harvested. As the result of encouragement of their cultivation, coupled with improvement in the use of economical fertilizers and prevention of the presence of noxious insects, the area thus made to yield two staple crops a year was considerably increased.

The soja-bean ranks next to rice in importance as an article of export. Though, owing to reckless methods of preparation, such

as drying and assorting, the bean was at one time unable to gain any extensive outside market, it is now in high esteem in the Japanese market through the adoption of measures for thorough improvement in quality. The destination of its export is mostly Japan, as in the case of rice, where it is used not only for food but also for chemical industrial purposes, and the amount exported is yearly on the increase. In 1930 the area under cultivation was 793,000 *chobu* producing 4,490,000 *kobu*, representing an increase of six times in area, and seven times in yield as compared with the year 1910.

Millet is of considerable importance among the cereals grown in the country, since many of the peasants depend upon it as an economical food. It is largely cultivated in the north, but even so the importation of it from Manchuria forms a significant item in Korean imports, the amount reaching about 2 million *koku* a year.

Cotton has been cultivated in Chosen from very early times, yet until quite recently the production was barely sufficient to cover domestic needs. It was only through the efforts of the authorities that real progress was witnessed in this important branch of agriculture. In 1906 a cotton-plantation was started in Mokpo to carry on the tentative cultivation of American cotton. The superiority of it over the native species being fully demonstrated, its cultivation was assiduously encouraged in the south, the result being that the area advanced from 1,200 *chobu* producing 660,000 *kin* in 1910 to 132,000 *chobu* yielding 127,000,000 *kin* in 1930. Thus, plantations under cotton of both native and foreign origin throughout the peninsula advanced from 60,000 *chobu* yielding 21,000,000 *kin* in 1910 to 193,000 *chobu* yielding as much as 169,000,000 *kin* in 1930. Along with increase in production, its export is also steadily growing. This is very welcome since Japan is badly in need of cotton for her ever-extending textile industry.

The sugar-beet was started experimentally in 1906. Having obtained satisfactory results, its cultivation has since been encouraged

with the aid of subsidies for distribution of improved seeds. Experiments carried on by experts for a number of years prove that Heijo and district are best suited for its growth and the area in 1930 reached 888 *chobu* with a production amounting to 17,447,000 *kin*. In 1920 a sugar factory was established at Heijo by the Japan Sugar Manufacturing Company as a pioneer plant.

Many kinds of fruit are grown in Chosen owing to the favourable conditions of the climate and soil. In recent years every encouragement has been given to induce the extensive cultivation of "select" species instead of the native ones which are generally of a very inferior kind, and in consequence some of the fruits now grown in Chosen such as apple, pear, grape, and chestnut, have the credit of being superior to those grown in Japan. Thus with the improvement in quality, as well as in productivity, Korean fruit has become an important item of export to Japan and elsewhere, the amount witnessing increase each year. The apple leads the rest both in production and demand, the amount in 1930 reaching about 6,580,000 *kwan* valued at 3,194,000 *yen*.

## 52. Sericulture

Sericulture in Chosen is a family industry, and, for the most part, is carried on as a side-line. The Korean climate and soil are highly favourable for the raising of silkworms, but not much progress was ever made in this line, as the species reared were of inferior kinds, while the method of rearing them was very primitive and the cultivation of mulberry trees, on whose leaves they feed, received little if any attention. The Government since 1910 has employed every means to secure thorough improvement in both quality and quantity of cocoons, and regulations were issued in 1919 to provide for the examination of egg-cards, prevention of diseases, care of mulberry seedlings, etc., and institutions necessary for the encouragement of this profitable business were established in the provinces. The result of all these efforts is

already evident in the greatly advanced condition of the industry. The number of families engaging in sericulture in 1910 was calculated at 76,000 and the volume of cocoons gathered at 14,000 *koku*, but in 1930 the figures were 720,813 families and 555,232 *koku*.

Reeling was formerly done at home by means of simple implements and for home consumption only, but of late years the development in sericulture has induced the use of modern machines, and reeling-mills now number 53 with an aggregate yearly output of raw silk amounting to 231,542 *kwan* valued at 12,619,039 *yen*, all intended for export. On the other hand, hand-reeling is still quite common in the country and employs 245,857 families turning out a total production of 352,948 *kwan* valued at 16,807,546 *yen*.

### 53. Stock-farming

Cattle, raised everywhere in the peninsula, are indispensable to Korean farm-life, for they supply the greater part of the labour required on a farm. Korean cattle are generally of hardy constitution and gentle disposition, while their flesh is very palatable, so they are highly valued as a source of both labour and food. Of late, in consideration of the greater demand for them in Japan as well as in Manchuria and Siberia, various means have been employed by the authorities to help on development in cattle breeding, for which the land offers many advantages, and with such good effect that cattle increased from 700,000 at the end of 1910 to over 1,612,000 at the end of 1930, and the number exported from about 12,000 to over 37,000.

In contrast with the cattle, the native horse is very small and poor, averaging less than four feet in height. With the object of making a new variety more suited to the Korean climate, the authorities are now trying cross-breeding between Mongolian mares and Japanese stallions, and the work is chiefly carried on at the horse-farms at Rankoku and Yuki in the north.



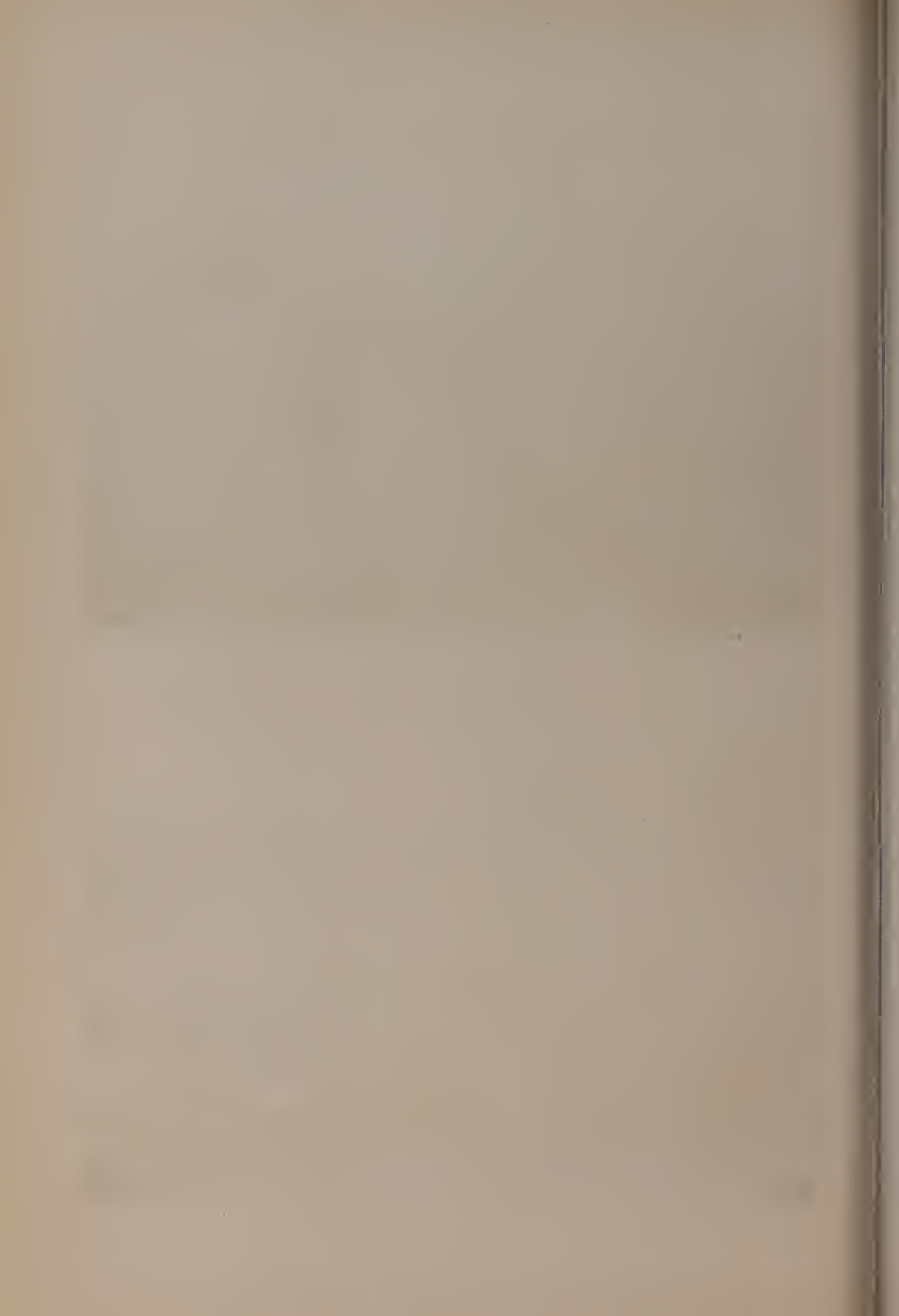


33. Raising of improved variety of white fowls.



34. Hogs for breeding.







35. Fumigating fruit trees.



36. Planting trees on Arbor Day.



Sheep were almost unknown in Chosen, though goats were kept by some people, but in 1914 a sheep-pasturage was established at Sempo, Kogen Province, and sheep were imported from Mongolia. Since 1919, cross-breeding between Mongolian sheep and breeds of foreign origin has also been carried on there, while to encourage private enterprises a good number of sheep have been distributed among stock-farmers. In 1924 this pasturage was combined with the Rankoku stud-farm in the same province from economical considerations. Judging from the experience, so far gained, sheep-breeding in Chosen seems to have some hopeful possibilities.

As for pigs and poultry, their improvement has been fostered by the import from Japan of superior breeds, and at the end of 1930 the former totalled 1,387,000 and the latter 6,147,000, both more than double the number kept at the time of annexation.

Cow-hides constitute one of the principal exports. Korean cattle furnish an excellent hide because of its large size and fine grain. The only drawbacks to its value lie in the manner of peeling and drying, and in the presence of abrasions caused by rough treatment, but the adoption of new methods of preparation since 1911, together with the prevention of saddle-gall, has led to great progress in the art of preparing the hide for tanning, and at the present time the total output of cow-hides amounts to over 6,000,000 *kin* of which 60 per cent. is quite free from blemish. The tallow, bones, gristle, and hair, formerly thrown away as refuse, are also being increasingly utilized.

#### 54. Forestry

There is no nation in the world which prospers without paying due regard to forestry. In spite of this self-evident truth, the forests in Chosen were long left untended or abandoned, so that good forests, chiefly found in remote mountainous regions, now occupy only one-third of the total area of "forest" lands, which cover more than half the entire peninsula, and the remaining two-

thirds is but thinly wooded or entirely denuded. Even those forests still standing and left to take their own course show signs of decay with increasing age, while on the other hand the demand for timber for building material, fuel, pulp, etc., is growing greater each year, so the Government is doing all in its power to secure their conservation and cultivation, besides trying to prevent the reckless deforestation which used to be customary among the people at large.

Throughout the country there are many varieties of plants belonging to both temperate and frigid zones, the result of the wide difference in climate and soil between the north and south. For instance, in the basins of the northern rivers, the spruce, birch, larch, etc., are to be found, and in those of the central and southern part the red and black pine, oak, alder, bamboo, etc.

Formerly no system existed in Chosen for the care and management of forests, of which 80 per cent. was state-owned, and the people enjoyed freedom to exploit all except certain forbidden forests, but even these became less inviolable toward the latter days of the old régime, resulting in unscrupulous felling of trees. In 1908, the Korean Government, acting in conformity with Japanese advice, promulgated a forestry law, but after annexation a new law was issued, providing among other things that State unreserved forest lands may be leased out for the purpose of afforestation and ultimately transferred to those successfully accomplishing the work, and the area of lands thus leased now reaches over 1,668,946 *chobu*, of which about one-third has been transferred to successful cultivators. At present five million *chobu* of the forest land is state owned and one hundred twenty thousand *chobu* is reserved for university research and as national parks. The great forests along the basins of the Yalu and Tumen rivers cover an area of more than two million *chobu* having five billion cub. ft. of lumber.

Though general investigation of the forests in the country was made at the time of annexation, many cases remained in which no clear line of demarkation was drawn between State-owned and

private forests, and this led to perpetual litigation, so under the new provisions of 1910 local offices were charged anew with investigation of all existing forests for the settlement of their ownership and boundaries, and a committee was specially formed to decide appeals against the awards of the local investigation.

The first step taken toward afforestation was the creation of model forests in 1907 on the hills near Keijo and Heijo, followed later on by similar undertakings near the towns of Suigen, Kaijo, and Taikyū. In recent years re-clothing of denuded woodlands around large centres has been taken up extensively to prevent sand-drifts and to afford a future supply of timber, and the area so covered at State expense up to 1930 totalled 45,100 *chobu* and the number of seedlings planted 80,000,000.

The first afforestation maintained at local expense was started in Kogen Province in 1911, and the example being followed, all the provinces are now engaging in the work, the total area afforested up to 1930 reaching 18,077 *chobu* and the number of seedlings planted 65,217,000.

Afforestation under private management has also made rapid progress of late years, and the aggregate number of young trees planted up to 1930 amounted to 665,089,000 over an area of 931,171 *chobu*. Among those engaging in the work on a large scale may be mentioned the Oriental Development Company and other large companies.

In connection with the model farms mentioned, three public nurseries or seedling plantations were started in 1907, and more being formed each year they numbered 82 by the end of 1930. The principal seedlings raised at these places are the pine, oak, chestnut, poplar, larch, etc., and at first distribution was made gratis to people interested. In 1930 those maintained at national expense covered 23 *chobu* in area, raising about 13,670,000 seedlings, and those at local expense 110 *chobu*, raising over 10,669,000 seedlings, while private undertakings accounted for over 267,549,000 seedlings covering an area of 1,373 *chobu*. Besides, every possible opportunity



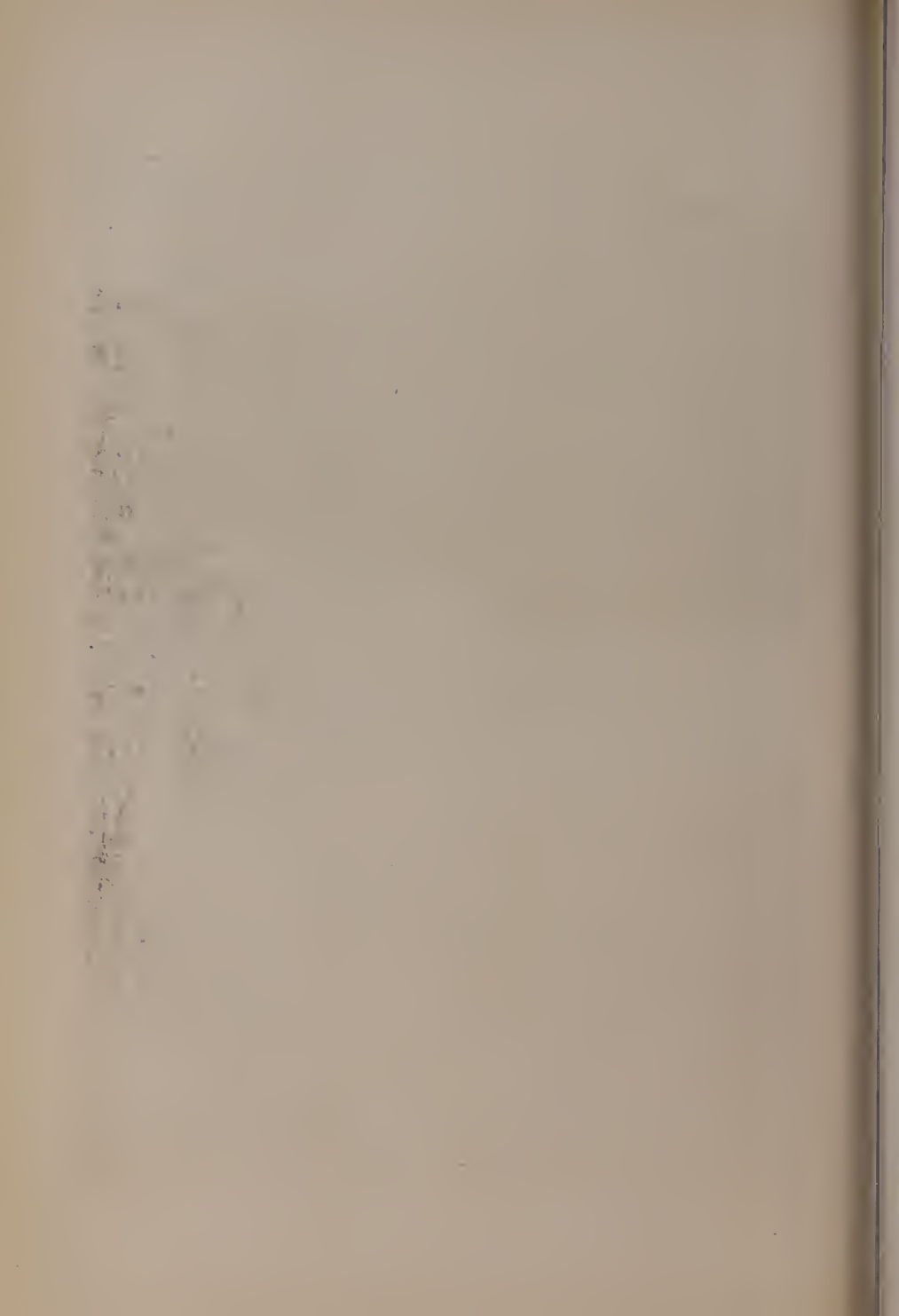
was seized by the authorities to arouse the interest of the people in afforestation. Schools were provided with lands on which to plant trees, and the 3rd of April, the anniversary of the death of the first Emperor of Japan, was fixed upon as Arbor Day, on which day universal plantation is encouraged. During the twenty years of Japanese régime, from 1910 to 1930, by Government and private undertakings more than a million chobu (=three million acres) have been planted with over three billion trees. The whole landscape is gradually changing and the general rainfall will in time be increased, while at the same time the danger from floods will be reduced.

Scientific examination and investigation of forest plants being necessary for the improvement of forestry on a sound basis, work along that line carried on since 1913 was much enlarged in scope and more experts were engaged, and in 1922 an experimental forestry station was established in a suburb of Keijo.

Among the few forest districts spared the ravages of wholesale deforestation, the most important is the one along the upper reaches of the Yalu and Tumen Rivers on the frontier. The first systematic exploitation of it began in 1906 when a joint insitution by the Japanese and Korean Governments with a capital of 1,200,000 *yen* was formed for the purpose. This was the origin of the Government Forestry Station at Shingishu which, together with a similar joint enterprise of Japanese and Chinese on the other side of the Yalu, forms one of the largest timber supplies in this part of the world. The Station is provided with nurseries of its own, so that as trees are felled new ones may be planted in their stead. The timber felled is mostly rafted down to the lumber yard at Shingishu, where it is sawn and sold, the profit from the undertaking going to the Treasury. During the year under review about three million cub. ft. of lumber valued at four million *yen* was seasoned here and was all sold, making a profit of nearly one million *yen*.



37. Larches on the Yalu





38 Afforestation on denuded mountains, second year.



39. The result of twelve years' afforestation.





## 55. Fisheries

Girdled on three sides by water, with a coast-line measuring more than 10,000 miles, Chosen is favourably situated for the development of her fisheries. Owing to the presence of innumerable islands and indentations of the coast, as well as to the great influence of both warm and cold currents washing her shores, there is abundant marine life and the principal varieties of fish already known number some 80. But these natural advantages were almost wasted on the native fishermen who knew but little of modern methods of fishing. Since the establishment of the present regime, improvements have been introduced into fishing boats, gear, and methods, and encouragement given in various forms for the increase of marine production, so that the value of catches, which was only 8,000,000 *yen* at the time of annexation, rose to 50,000,000 *yen* in 1930, and that of prepared aquatic products during the same period increased from 2,650,000 to 30,389,000 *yen*.

The first law for fisheries was published in 1909, and was replaced with a new law in 1912, providing for the security of exclusive fishing rights over a certain area of water, the prohibition of certain acts prejudicial to fishing in protected areas, the granting of permits to applicants according to custom as far as possible, and the prevention of individual monopolization of any fishing ground. The law was accompanied by regulations for the protection and control of fisheries placing some restrictions on the manner, season, and place of fishing, prohibiting trawling within specified zones in Korean seas, and limiting the number of whaling boats and diving apparatus. Steps were also taken to suppress the Chinese poachers appearing on the western coast, thus rendering their visits far less frequent than formerly.

The first aquatic investigation was undertaken by the authorities in 1912 with regard to the distribution of Korean fish, their movement, reproduction, and season of visits, suitability of methods employed in catching them, preparation of salted and dried fish for



export, and artificial culture of certain kinds of fish and sea-weeds, and in 1922 a central organ called the Fisheries Experimental Station was established at Fusan in order to carry on the work more systematically. These and other efforts toward improvement of the fishing industry in the country have already been productive of good results. Nothing, however, has contributed more to the recent progress of Korean fisheries than the increased immigration of skilled Japanese fishermen, by whom the native fishermen have been taught to engage in deep sea fishing—a new profitable venture for the Koreans, their activity having hitherto been confined to off-shore and inland waters.

With a view to promoting common interests among fishing communities, regulations were promulgated in 1912 authorizing the formation of fishermen's associations. These associations increased year by year until they reached 212 in 1930 with a combined membership of over 111,000, and their joint activities consisted in the purchase of fishing tackle, sale of fish, advance of funds, lending of boats, equipment of alarms and signals, arrangement of mooring places, etc. All are making good under the supervision and guidance of the authorities, and not a few are assisted financially by the Government.

As early as 1900 an association was founded at Fusan by fishing parties coming from Japan for protection of their business, and gradually extended the scope of its work to include the entire peninsula, but in 1912, on the enforcement of the new fishing law, some change was made in its constitution to permit of Koreans becoming members, and it enjoyed an annual subsidy from the Government. It then remained unchanged until 1923, when it was re-organized under the new regulations, and a Chosen Fisheries Association was formed in Keijo as a central institution with a similar institution in each province. The Association engages chiefly in such works as rescue at sea, free medicine for the sick, inquiry into fishing conditions, guidance of fishermen in their business, etc., and has about 130,000 members in all.

In connection with fisheries the famous Hǎnyo (women divers) of Quelpart island are worthy of mention. These women now numbering 7,000 are engaged in catching sea-ear, wreath-shell, laver and other sea-weeds by diving into the deep sea, and each of them earns from 1 to 2 yen a day.

During the warm season they migrate to the mainland for fishing purposes. The total earnings of these women on the south coast and in Quelpart island together amount to one million yen a year.

They have a Fisherwomen's Cooperative Society and for the promotion of their welfare the Local Government of the island is doing its best.

## Marine Products

	1929	1930
	Yen	Yen
Mackerel . . . . .	7,311,000	6,224,000
Sardine . . . . .	15,362,000	4,937,000
Sciaena . . . . .	4,176,000	3,715,000
Laver . . . . .	2,272,000	2,114,000
Herring . . . . .	2,926,000	1,961,000
Sea-bream . . . . .	1,731,000	1,860,000
Hair-tail . . . . .	1,718,000	1,504,000
Plaice . . . . .	1,729,000	1,458,000
Cybiurn . . . . .	1,845,000	1,408,000
Cod . . . . .	1,872,000	1,371,000
Horse-mackerel . . . . .	1,156,000	1,313,000
Prawn & Shrimp . . . . .	1,541,000	1,268,000
Whale . . . . .	821,000	1,159,000
<i>Mintai</i> (Alaska Pollack) . . . . .	2,240,000	1,094,000
Yellow-tail . . . . .	1,581,000	888,000
Shark . . . . .	1,058,000	768,000
Oyster . . . . .	370,000	725,000
Clam . . . . .	377,000	435,000
Sea Mussel . . . . .	246,000	275,000
Wing-Shell . . . . .	117,000	149,000

## 56. Mining

The Korean peninsula is rich in minerals of various kinds, but this natural wealth, like a hidden treasure, remained untouched for a long time, and when touched at last it was mostly by foreign hands. Foreign mining activity in the peninsula dates back to the year 1896 when an American citizen named James R. Morse took the initiative in securing a concession covering Unsan Mine, and the example being followed by people of his own and other nationalities, most of the gold mines at the beginning of the present century were in the possession of foreign concessionaires.

But the mining administration in those days was ineffective. While mines were nominally under the Government, concessions were often freely granted by the Imperial Court. In some cases a concession given at one time was revoked afterwards and wantonly bestowed on another party, and even the imposition of taxes depended upon the caprice of the authorities. So, following on the establishment of the protectorate régime, a mining law was promulgated in July, 1906, and the mining administration in the country became unified and consolidated. Though the law continued in force after annexation, it was soon found to be out of date and the present mining law was framed and enforced in 1916. The new law ordained that a mining right could only be granted to Japanese citizens or to legal corporations created under the Japanese law, and the minerals subject to its provisions were increased in number from 17 to 29. With regard to mining permits, the principle was adopted, except for certain reserved localities, of awarding them according to priority of application filed with the authorities, and the mining right being treated in the same manner as real estate it had to be confirmed by legal registration. The use and expropriation of land necessary for mining purposes were then determined, while other provisions were made to meet several other mining conditions. At the same time the mining right already secured by foreigners under the old régime was strictly respected

and was made valid and heritable by other foreign individuals or corporations having their head office in Chosen. Toward the end of 1921 revision was made in the existing law so as to extend the scope of mining claims.

Of Korean mineral products, gold occupies the most important place, and the most noted gold mine in the country is Unsan Mine operated by an American syndicate called the Oriental Consolidated Mining Company. Next to it come Shojo Mine worked by Frenchmen, Sujan Mine by Englishmen, and Sansei and Koyo Mines by Japanese.

Formerly the general mining industry in Chosen was conducted in a primitive way except where certain foreigners were concerned, so the Government tried to induce Japanese mining firms to invest funds in Chosen and start undertakings, but it was not until after the annexation that Japanese began to play an important rôle in the Korean mining field. In fact, their activity dates only from the year 1911 when some Japanese capitalists, who had held back on account of the unsettled state of the peninsula, at last entered the arena, and the gold fields so far known being already occupied by men of other nationalities, turned their attention to other directions, principally iron and coal. Chief among the enterprises thus initiated may be mentioned the smelting plant of the Kuhara Mining Company at Chinnampo, the ore-dressing factory of the Japan Mineral Company at Roryoshin, and the iron foundry of the Mitsubishi Iron Company at Kenjiho.

Nearly every kind of useful mineral, except sulphur, petroleum, and asphalt, is to be found in plenty within the country, especially gold, iron, anthracite, and graphite. During the European War the mining boom in the country was such as was never experienced before, but the post-bellum economic situation caused considerable reduction in the demand for Korean mineral products, and led to the closing down of mines in rapid succession, with consequent decrease in the output of minerals. In the following table is given the production in value of the principal minerals in recent years

as compared with that at the time of annexation.

Mineral	1930	1929	1927	1921	1910
Gold . . . . .	6,207,644	5,848,720	5,725,457	2,992,021	3,744,957
Pig Iron . . . . .	5,923,071	6,795,334	6,523,350	4,819,843	—
Coal . . . . .	5,327,966	6,321,485	5,286,318	3,192,262	388,781
Iron Ore . . . . .	2,808,173	3,153,988	2,889,544	1,716,170	421,462
Blister Copper . . . . .	1,398,225	1,348,686	90,737	17,986	—
Gold & Silver Ore . . . . .	1,070,439	1,353,133	1,056,344	587,412	262,092
Concentrates . . . . .	633,885	495,208	345,612	1,489,182	246,631
Graphite. . . . .	423,314	502,159	403,951	208,902	153,477
Placer Gold. . . . .	411,012	25,938	408,474	359,260	821,609
Silver. . . . .	53,207	59,820	54,288	4,775	6,555
Lead . . . . .	49,948	129,528	286,366	—	—
Tungsten ore . . . . .	6,216	8,048	—	—	—
Zinc ore . . . . .	5,200	85,004	79,828	4,798	—
Others . . . . .	331,163	354,315	318,958	374,617	21,488
<b>Total</b>	<b>24,654,463</b>	<b>26,488,366</b>	<b>24,169,229</b>	<b>15,537,225</b>	<b>6,067,952</b>

## 57. Commerce and Manufacture

From olden times it has been customary among the Koreans to sell and buy at markets periodically held in various important towns, and even to-day the greater part of the internal trade is carried on in this manner. A market is, as a rule, opened every fifth day, and on that day people come together from far and near to get their supplies of food, clothing materials, cattle, and all necessaries of life. Such markets at present number more than 1,300 throughout the country, and their annual transactions amount to over 180,000,000 *yen*. Though shops flourish in the larger towns, the markets still constitute an important element in Korean commercial life, and some of them have a national fame, like the medicine market in Taikyū and the cattle market in Suigen.

This system of trade, which was undoubtedly called into being



by necessity, has of course its own merits and demerits, and when properly regulated and protected contributes much to local economy. So in September, 1914, regulations for markets were finally published, providing in detail for their formation, management, and supervision. But things are running their course, and with the growing influence of modern shops the market system is gradually giving way to a more advanced form of doing business.

Spot markets, so-called, carrying on transactions by description or by showing samples, are held daily, and are subject to strict Government control. Up to the end of 1930 permission had been given for the establishment of two in Keijo and one each in eight other centres, or 10 in all, of which one incorporated in Keijo deals in securities, the others in grain only.

Specific regulations for business companies were issued in 1911, subjecting all to licence by the authorities, thereby preventing the establishment of illegal or bubble corporations. In 1920, however, these regulations were abolished that more freedom might be enjoyed by those starting companies, joint-stock or otherwise, except exchanges and insurance companies, both of which being of a different nature from other undertakings were left subject to the old provisions. Many companies have since come into existence with the general growth of industry, and at the end of 1930 those having their main offices in Chosen numbered over 1,916, showing a remarkable advance since the annexation when there were only 150 of them. One of the most recent is the Nippon Com Products Company (factory at Heijo) which was founded under Japanese law with American capital in May 1930. It is interesting to note that there are now eight branches of foreign companies in Chosen, five commercial and three mineral. Classified according to the object for which they were founded they make the following showing.



	1930	1929	1911
Agriculture & Forestry . . . . .	83	89	12
Commerce . . . . .	660	589	76
Manufacture . . . . .	511	469	27
Fishery . . . . .	21	23	1
Mining . . . . .	18	15	1
Banking . . . . .	147	142	19
Transportation . . . . .	196	183	19
Gas & Electricity . . . . .	54	51	7
Others . . . . .	226	209	—
<b>Total . . . . .</b>	<b>1,916</b>	<b>1,768</b>	<b>152</b>
Capital . . . . .	653,906,000 <i>Yen</i>	616,080,000 <i>Yen</i>	39,766,000 <i>Yen</i>

In order to portray to the general public the business condition of Chosen and to stimulate her development industrially, a commercial museum was established in Keijo in 1912, and later on a museum of local products in every province. For the same purpose exhibitions were often held in Keijo and elsewhere, and exhibitions in Japan were also made use of to exhibit Korean products as much as possible. In 1925, regulations for Chambers of Commerce were issued, whereby separate chambers for Japanese and Koreans were no longer allowed, and only one with a joint membership of both peoples was permitted to exist in any one centre. These organs now number 11, all situated in the principal towns.

Another important factor to which the commercial development in the peninsula is directly indebted, was the standardising of weights and measures. As they had for long no definite standard, entailing a great deal of trouble and uncertainty in business life, a radical reform was at last introduced in September, 1909, making their units and denominations identical with those current in Japan, though it was not until 1912 that the entire country was brought into line with the system. Further, following in the wake of the homeland, which adopted the metric system in 1924, it was decided

to enforce it in Chosen also from the year 1926.

The Koreans of old were excellent artists and workers in weaving, ceramics, and metal casting, and that these arts once attained a high degree of development is evidenced by the many excellent works still left, chiefly in the form of domestic industry. On the advent of the present régime, therefore, efforts were put forth to revive these ancient arts, as well as to introduce modern mechanical arts, and one of the first steps taken to that end was the establishment in Keijo of an up-to-date technical school in 1909, followed by the erection of a Central Laboratory in 1912 for the exclusive conduct of scientific experiments in connexion with all branches of Korean manufacturing industry.

The manufacturing industry, though still in its infancy, has made such advance since 1916, being favourably influenced by the European war that the total value of manufactured articles amounted to over 327,900,000 *yen* in 1929, (figures for 1930 are not available) this being over twenty times as large as that for 1911 in which year they were valued at 15,645,000 *yen*. Chosen holds out promise for great development in manufactures, as she has a large supply of material and labour—two factors most favourable to the expansion of industrial interests—so that with sufficient capital and the equipment of modern factories Chosen can hardly fail to become an important industrial country.

Except for some few run by Japanese and foreigners, factories on modern lines were practically non-existent in Chosen prior to the European War, but the abnormal conditions induced by that great event quickly brought about a change, and in 1929 the number of factories and workshops, only 150 employing 8,200 hands in 1910, increased to 5,000 employing about 100,000 hands with an aggregate capital of 550,000,000 *yen*.

The most important manufactures are :

(1) cotton, hemp, and silk tissues, the total value of their output increased from 5,000,000 *yen* in 1911 to 30,387,000 *yen* in 1929 though the demand for them is still largely met by import.

While the larger part of the raw cotton is still exported to Japan, owing to the absence of skilled workers and capital, cotton manufacturing was started on a large and systematic scale by the Chosen Spinning Co, at Fusan in 1922.

(2) paper, production of which increased from 382,000 *yen* in 1911 to 4,300,000 *yen* in 1929, is mostly of home and hand make. Of late years the demand for foreign papers has grown considerably, the total value imported rising from 800,000 *yen* in 1911 to 8,000,000 *yen* in 1929 ;

(3) ceramics, for which the Onoda Cement Co. started a branch establishment in Heijo in 1919, followed later on by the Japan Pottery Co. at Fusan, has a yearly output valued at about 13,000,000 *yen* ;

(4) *saké*, the demand for which is increasing with the growth of the Japanese population in this country, increased in production from 740,000 *yen* in 1911 to 600,000 *yen* in 1929 while import from Japan still amounted to 1,400,000 *yen* ;

(5) iron-wares, formerly consisting of crude articles for daily use, are now being produced on a larger scale to the yearly amount of some 5,000,000 *yen*, but the larger part of the supply still depends on import ;

(6) leather, with an output of 3 million *yen* looks very promising, several tanyards having been established in the country, the chief among them being the one at Yeitoho ;

(7) sugar, the manufacture of this article was started in Heijo by the Japan Sugar Co. in 1920, and the output of it amounted in value to over 13,000,000 *yen* in 1929 ;

(8) wangol matting, a Korean specialty made of wangol, gives promise even as an article of export, the output in 1929 being 2,000,000 *yen* ; flour, vegetable oils, washing soap, etc., are also worthy of notice as being among the country's profitable enterprises.

### 58. Chosen Exposition

In the Autumn of 1929 (from September 12 to October 31) an Exposition was held in the Keifuku Palace Grounds under the auspices of the Government-General to commemorate the 20th Anniversary of the Administration of Chosen.

Nineteen major exhibition halls as well as numerous minor ones accommodated 25,972 exhibits of Korean native products. Japan proper, Formosa and the South Sea Islands showed their specialities, and several foreign countries, France, Germany and Belgium, also participated in the Exposition. More than a million people visited it, and the proceeds from the admission tickets were nearly 300,000 *yen*. But the expenses were so great that the deficit was over a million *yen*. Prize medals were given to persons who presented the best articles and those who were honoured with such medals numbered 6,008.

## VIII. CIVIL ENGINEERING

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### 59. Road Improvements

In old Korea with all its civilization good roads were entirely lacking, and what roads it possessed were usually left in a state of utter disrepair. Even the "grand highway" from Keijo to the Chinese border was barely grand enough to admit of a cart being driven along it, so what the rest were like can easily be imagined. It is true the Korean Government used to allot certain sums of money to the various districts for purposes of road repair, but much of this, it is said, went into the pockets of the local magistrates, and practically nothing was done to the roads. On the country being brought under Japanese management, great efforts were consequently put forth to improve this backward condition, and it was planned to construct a regular network of roads of three classes, of which the first and second classes were to be looked after by the Government itself, and the third by the provinces, while in urban districts all classes were to be under municipal control.

When repairs were undertaken in former times, *corvée* or compulsory service was always used and this was continued even into the new régime by conscripting those persons unable to pay their assessment. In addition, the land owners were often induced to surrender land for roads free of cost. But this is now changed, for in 1919 it was prescribed that in the making of roads at national expense *corvée* should be dispensed with, and the land needed purchased at a fair price, though in the case of roads at provincial cost the old practice was still retained in force in consideration of its special connexion with local interests.

In the construction of roads the Government ruled that first class roads were to be 24 feet or more in width, second class 18,

and third class 12. Execution of the first programme took seven years and was completed in 1917 at a cost of 10,000,000 *yen*. It comprised 34 highways measuring 1,700 miles, and the building of an iron bridge over the Kan-ko. For the second programme the construction of 26 highways, some 1,200 miles in length, was projected at an estimate of 7,500,000 *yen* spread over six years, from 1917 to 1922. Owing to the rise in price of material and labour, the original estimates were doubled, and further augmented by the inclusion of an additional sum of 12,000,000 *yen* for frontier roads and bridges, the period of construction being extended by another six years. In 1926 enlargement of the scheme with an additional appropriation of 5,600,000 *yen* was made, and the period for completion was extended to 1932.

The road improvement in 1930 was as follows :

1st class road.....	63	kilos
2nd „ „ .....	190	„
3rd „ „ .....	165	„
Total		418 kilos

The Government-General paid about 774,000 *yen* for the work under its direct control and also gave a subsidy of 464,000 *yen* to the provincial governments for their own works.

One thing of special note is that in the summer of 1929 severe hailstorms visited several districts in North Heian and North Kankyo Provinces. The damage done to the crops was so heavy that the rural population were in danger of starvation.

Therefore the provincial governments gave them direct aid with food and seed for planting, Moreover they carried on road construction works from 1929 to 1930 as a means of relief. At the same time the Government-General gave a subsidy of 55,000 *yen* toward this work.

According to the latest returns the length of roads already constructed is 10,241, km. of first and second class roads and 8,674 km. of third class roads, or 80 and 73 per cent. of the length



determined for the projected network. With the steady improvement of the highway system automobile services in the country have rapidly increased and nearly every local centre is now connected with one or other of the principal towns.

## 60. Street Improvements

In view of the growing need for traffic facilities in urban areas street improvement or reconstruction has been extensively undertaken under the present regime, beginning with Keijo, where it was conducted at national expense to set an example to other towns, and the 13 streets selected for improvement were reconstructed at a cost of 3,000,000 *yen* from 1911 to 1918. The most important of these were made 12 to 19 *ken* in width and provided with pavements, and where traffic is heaviest the road surface is tar-macadamized or asphalted, thus adding to the modern aspect of the city. The second programme, spread over 6 years from 1919, took in 12 streets, of which 9 were completed by 1929 at a cost of 2,910,000 *yen*.

During the year under review the streets in Keijo were much improved. The new road between the main-gate of the East Palace to the Keijo University Hospital—685.5 metres long is now near completion thus adding one more step in the beautifying of the city and the convenience of traffic. The expense for this work is 425,000 *yen*.

Heijo, Taikyu, Fusan, Mokpo, Chinnampo, Gensan, Kanko and Yuki also made remarkable progress in their street road improvements.

To forward the sound development of Korean towns, the Government has incorporated in the budget since 1921 a special item for investigation regarding town-planning, and started work on it in Keijo, Heijo, Taikyu, and Fusan. There are now 13 towns marked out for such work, including the chief seaports and provincial centres. The expenditure on these is defrayed out of the local revenues with

some assistance from the Treasury, and work in each is well under way.

A complete sewerage system, as an aid to street sanitation, is still lacking in most places, so efforts are being made for its establishment side by side with street improvement in the large towns, which are the first to feel such necessity. On such work nine towns have already gone to considerable expense, the largest among them being Keijo, Heijo and Kunsan. Part of the cost of construction is provided by the national treasury and part by public bodies.

### 61. Harbour Improvements

Harbour improvement was first undertaken in 11 important ports during the protectorate. While work was still going on, annexation took place, in consequence of which all these works were taken over by the present Government and vigorously pursued on a far bigger scale.

Fusan was the first port selected for development up to a maximum capacity of 700,000 tons a year, and this was completed in 1918 at the cost of 3,800,000 *yen*. Direct connexion was then made between the trunk railway line and the Shimonoseki-Fusan ferry service. However, trade through the port showing every sign of great increase, enlargement of the jetties, construction of a break-water, and dredging of the harbour to provide a more spacious anchorage were started at the estimated cost of 9,000,000 *yen* to be completed in 1928.

The work at Jinsen was undertaken to provide the port with a lockgate dock, to accommodate with ease three boats of the 4,000 ton class along one side of it. A dock of this kind was sorely needed because of the great tidal range reaching 30 feet. Construction of it was started in 1911 at the estimated cost of some 7,000,000 *yen* and completed in 1923.

The work at Chinnampo was begun as a four-year undertaking in 1911, and finished as planned in 1914 at a cost of over 830,000

*yen*. But the maximum difference of 24 feet between ebb and flow being still a source of trouble in unloading, this difficulty is still claiming the attention of the authorities.

The works at Gensan were started as a seven year enterprise from 1915 at an estimate of 2,640,000 *yen* and finished in 1922, but the need for extension of the land equipments called for the expenditure of an additional 850,000 *yen* and the work saw completion in 1927.

The larger harbours being thus improved, the next to claim attention was Seishin, as destined to play an important part in the development of North Chosen, and work there was started in 1922 as an eight-year enterprise at an estimated cost of 2,500,000 *yen*. Work is in progress in Kunsan, Mokpo, Yuki, etc.

At present a new harbor construction at the "Tasarugi" Anchorage (an island lying at the mouth of River Yalu) has been completed at a cost of 500,000 *yen* to the national exchequer. The harbour is joined by an embankment of 600 metres to the mainland by which connection is made with Ryugampo (Yongampo) and Shingishu.

## 62. River Improvements

The large rivers in Chosen, such as the Daido-ko, Kan-ko, Kin-ko, Rakuto-ko, etc., are of great value to traffic though they have not yet been utilized to their fullest extent. On the other hand, their inundation, an almost yearly event, results in more or less damage being done to the lands traversed by them, mainly because little has ever been done to keep them within proper bounds, and also because the precious forests at one time bordering them have been cut down regardless of resultant evils. Under the present regime, serious attention is being paid to river conservation, and survey of eleven large rivers has been completed resulting in an eleven-year programme, taking in six of them at an estimate of 48,000,000 *yen*, which was started in 1925.

## River Improvement Works, April 1930–March 1931.

(in thousands except Water-gates)

	Kan	Bankei	Rakuto	Sainei	Daido
Excavation . .	4,341 cub. m.	4,608 cub. m.	17,250 cub. m.	1,577 cub. m.	1 cub. m.
Embankment . .	7,553 cub. m.	4,581 cub. m.	16,649 cub. m.	5,036 cub. m.	19 cub. m.
Shoreprotection .	190 sq. m.	342 sq. m.	84 sq. m.	296 sq. m.	8 sq. m.
Water-gate . .	44	41	36	11	—

## 63. Waterworks

Owing to the nature of the soil Korean water is generally very hard, and even the well-water is found in many cases not good enough for drinking purposes. Moreover, it not seldom happens that the natural supply of water runs short, especially in the large towns, thus menacing the health of the people. To meet this danger the authorities are encouraging the construction of modern waterworks wherever possible.

The only cities possessed of waterworks in pre-annexation days were Keijo, Heijo, Fusan, and Mokpo, but now no town of importance lacks such provision, and the number of towns so provided has risen to 33. In the establishment and operation of them both Government and local public bodies took part, but in March, 1922, the Government transferred the waterworks run by it to their respective towns, though in the case of new construction financial help is still given by it in proportion to the need, ranging from 30 to 50 per cent. of the actual cost.

## 64. Public Buildings

At first most of the public offices in the country were housed in the old native buildings, so the Government annually spent two to three million *yen* in constructing new buildings, but after the year 1920 the budget estimates for buildings were more than doubled

owing to expansion in the various public undertakings, including the erection of new Government-General Offices, the Chosen Shrine, Keijo University, etc.

The new edifice for the Government-General is situated in the grounds of Keifuku or North Palace, Keijo, and is a five-storey one of ferro-concrete in modern Renaissance style, covering a floor area of 1,115 *tsubo*. The work was started in 1916 as a ten-year enterprise at an estimate of three million *yen*, but the subsequent rise in the price of material and wages more than doubled the cost as originally estimated. In January, 1926, the Government entered its new home.

The Chosen Shrine as the centre for national ceremonies, stands on Nansan or South Hill, Keijo, commanding a fine view of the country around. The work was begun with a ceremonial purification of the site in May, 1920, at an estimated expenditure of 1,500,000 *yen*, and was completed as arranged in October, 1925.

The establishment of Keijo Imperial University as the coping-stone of all educational institutions in the country has been in steady progress since 1924 as a four-year enterprise at an estimated cost of 1,668,000 *yen*. It is situated in the north-east of the city and the buildings include library, main hall, and class-rooms for the several departments.

The new building for law courts in Keijo including the Local Court, Court of Appeal, and Supreme Court, was started in 1926 as a three-year enterprise at an estimate of 600,000 *yen*, and the work is already completed.

## IX. COMMUNICATIONS

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### 65. State Railways

The first instance of a railway in Chosen was the Keijo-Jinsen line opened in 1900, and this was followed in 1904 by the opening of the main line between Keijo and Fusan. These were undertakings by private companies. In 1905 the Keijo-Shingishu main line and the Masan branch line, both built for army use during the Russo-Japanese War, were opened to the public, and with the former the trunk line from north to south was made complete. In 1906 the Japanese Government took over all existing lines and placed them under the Railway Bureau of the protectorate, but on the Government-General being established in 1910 control of them once more changed hands. During all this time improvement and construction work was steadily carried on, and the year 1910 saw the completion of the Heijo-Chinnampo line; in 1911 the Yalu was spanned by an iron bridge to connect the Korean and Manchurian railways; in 1914 the Taiden-Mokpo line in the south and the Keijo-Gensan line in the centre were completed; in 1914 the Gensan-Kainei line in the north measuring 383 miles was started and completed in September, 1928, at the cost of 90 million *yen*.

In the meantime, single control of the railways in Chosen and Manchuria being considered advisable from the commercial point of view, the Government-General in 1917 concluded a contract with the South Manchurian Railway Company and entrusted to it the entire management of the Korean State railways. This continued down to March, 1924, when the Government-General again took into its own hands the operation of the State lines in this country.

In 1927 the Government-General proposed a twelve year plan during which to construct a "Tumen River" line and other four lines totaling 1,384 kilometres and to buy out and improve the



Zenshu-Riri Railway and other four lines totaling 339 kilometres. At present the foregoing plan is being carried on effectively and when it is completed it is hoped that the railway traffic of Chosen will enter a new epoch-making period. At the end of March 1931 the total investment in government railways reached over 350 million *yen*, covering a length of 2,792 kilometers in active operation with 377 stations and employing 16,607 men in all, inclusive of 7,138 Koreans and 9 foreigners. The railways in Chosen, by bridging the Yalu which forms part of the boundary and making connexion thereby with the continental railways, became at once part of the international railway system, and this resulted in through traffic being established between Tokyo and Europe. The following table gives some idea of railway development in this land.

Fiscal Year	Lenth	Passengers	Freight	Receipts
1930 <sup>*</sup>	<i>Kilos</i> 2,792	20,650,000	<i>Tons</i> 5,936,000	<i>Yen</i> 36,821,000
1925	<i>Miles</i> 1,309	18,241,000	4,297,000	30,708,000
1920	1,157	12,421,000	3,186,000	28,816,000
1911	674	2,024,000	838,000	4,095,000

\* Metric system was introduced.

The hotel business as an adjunct to the railway business is run chiefly for the accommodation of the foreign tourists. It was first started in 1912 at Fusan and Shingishu, the two principal terminals, by making use of the upper storeys of each station. In 1914 the Chosen Hotel was built on a grand scale in Keijo with two branches at Kongo-san for the convenience of mountain sightseers, and in 1922 a similar hotel was opened in Heijo.

Of the six lines now under construction the most important is the new line between Heijo and Gensan across the middle of the country, 213 kilometers in length. This was started in 1926 as a ten year enterprise, and, up to the end of March 1931, 67 kilometres had been opened to traffic, and it is hoped it will prove another important link in the chain of traffic between North China and West Japan.

## 66. Private Railways

For the encouragement of private railway enterprises in Chosen, regulations were enacted in 1912 making provision for their proper supervision and protection, and in 1914 further provision was made for granting special subsidies to important lines to meet any deficiency in profit below a certain percentage on the paid-up capital of those companies to be so favoured. In 1921 new regulations providing increased State aid for private undertakings were approved by the Diet and put into force for the furtherance of their development. Thus private railways in Chosen have made considerable progress, though their business condition is not yet prosperous enough to permit of them paying dividends from their earnings without drawing on the Government, and the total length open to business up to March 1931 reached 1,063 kilometres operated by 7 companies, while new lines under construction, actual or projected, embraced some 570 kilometres. During the fiscal year 1930 the number of passengers carried on private railways reached 2,710,000 freight 980,000 tons, and receipts 3,195,865 *yen*.

## 67. Tramways

There are 145 kilometres of tramways under operation in Chosen of which the major ones are as follows.

The Keijo Electric Company Tramways in Keijo.....	35	kilos
The Chosen Gas-Electric Company Tramways in Fusan...	19	„
The Heijo Municipal Tramways in Heijo.....	12	„
The Quelpart Island Tramways in Quelpart Island.....	57	„
Others.....	22	„
		Total 145 kilos

From April 1930 to March 1931, these tramways carried

52,113,347 passengers and 16,595 tons of freight and receipts amounted to 2,604,000 *yen*.

## 68. Navigation

In the year 1912 matters relating to routes, ships, seamen, beacons, etc., were all systematized and placed under the Communications Bureau of the present Government, and during 1914-15 not only were the marine regulations unified and adjusted but a marine court was created. Before the annexation there existed a few small shipping concerns under government protection, and they were induced to amalgamate into one big company, the result of which was that the Chosen Mail Steamship Company came into being in 1912 and was ordered to establish regular coasting services. There are now seven shipping companies in Korean waters.

In 1910, ships of all kinds entered in the shipping register numbered only 88 with a tonnage of 9,300, but the regulations of marine affairs under the present regime led to great progress being made in maritime traffic, and especially during the Great War the shipping business in Chosen enjoyed an extraordinary boom. At present the number of lines regularly operated is 19 with 196 vessels (steam ships) aggregating 53,998 tons, their routes being interport, Korea-Japan and Korea-China-Russia.

Year	Steamers		Sailing Boats	
	Number	Tonnage	Number	Tonnage
1919 . . . . .	87	35,682	483	16,432
1925 . . . . .	147	44,520	627	21,075
1929 . . . . .	185	47,161	694	23,083
1930 . . . . .	196	53,998	692	22,911

In 1903 four lighthouses were built, and by the year 1906 the number had increased to 53, but as this merely represented one signal for every 160 nautical miles, and navigation around the archipelago on the south-western coast was particularly dangerous during the foggy season, further great increase has since been made. The total number of navigation aids now stands at 263 comprising 131 night, 110 day, and 22 fog signals, in the proportion of 1 night signal to every 131 kilometers of the entire coast.

### 69. Principal Navigable Rivers

The Yalu (Oryoko) river forming the boundary between Chosen and China, rises from Paktusan or the "Ever-white" Mountains (9,000 ft.) and empties into the Yellow Sea. The whole length is about eight hundred kilos of which seven hundred kilos, that is, from the mouth to Shinkapachin is navigable by air-propeller boats under Government subsidy, besides junks and other sailing boats. Its upper course traverses a vast virgin forest region. Timber felled there is made into rafts and floated down its many rapids until it reaches the lumber-yards at Shingishu or Antung.

The Daido river flows past Heijo and empties into Yellow Sea near Chinnampo. It is four hundred kilos long and has a navigable course of 245 kilos. Steamships of two thousand tons can sail up the river as far as Hosanpo, sixty three kilos from the mouth.

The following important rivers are open to navigation by sailing and motor boats.

River	Navigable course
Rakuto (flowing into Chosen Channel near Fusan)...	344 Kilos
Kanko ( " " Yellow Sea through Keijo)....	300 "
Kinko ( " " " " at Kunsan).....	130 "
Tumen ( " " Sea of Japan in extreme N. E.)...	85 "



Chosen, and in 1928, three airports were established, one in Urusan, one in Keijo and one in Heijo; eight ground marks were set up in Urusan, Kwokan, Taiden, Tenan, Shariin, Heijo, Teishu and Shingishu.<sup>(1)</sup>

There are now two wireless stations, one in Urusan and another in Keijo to make connection for airway news, and also a meteorological observatory (branch office) at the airport in Urusan, for the forecasting of weather conditions. At each airport there are officials for customs examination and also for general supervision.

Chosen has now become one of the international airway centres of the Far East. Since the opening of the airports in Chosen many distinguished foreign flyers have visited this part of the world, and this, no doubt, is a good step toward international amity.

Trial Flights—The Government-General, motivated by the desire to promote private airway business and to open air routes, gave a subsidy to the Institute for the Study of Chosen Air Navigation, Ltd., helping it to make trial flights between Keijo and Shinko, Keijo and Koryo, and between Shingishu and Chukochin.

## 71. Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones

A Japanese postal service in the peninsula was begun with the establishment of a post-office at Fusan in 1876, when the port was opened to foreign trade, followed later by the opening of similar offices in other treaty ports with the increase of Japanese settlers. In 1896 the Korean Government introduced a modern postal system, modelling it on that of Japan, and in 1900 formally joined the Universal Postal Union, but owing to poor management and consequent financial loss it was placed under Japanese control in July, 1905, and the Japanese postal system was made common to the two lands. Before 1905 there were 427 Korean and 89 Japanese offices as organs for communication, but to-day they number

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(1) A temporary airport was established in Shingishu on December 28, 1931.



866, including 114 telegraph and telephone offices. To facilitate postal services in the country an Employees Training School was founded in 1907, and up to March 1931, this school had sent out 3,252 graduates of whom 909 are Koreans.

The beginning of the telegraph service was in 1884 when a Japanese office was created in Fusan for communication with the homeland. Later on, similar offices were established in Keijo and a few other centres. The submarine cable between Fusan and Japan was originally the property of a foreign company, and its management was carried on with few exceptions under the Universal Telegraph Rules, but in 1910 Japan bought the cable from the company for the greater benefit of the public. Each year increase was made in the number of operating offices, and from only 44 in 1905 they rose to 789 in 1930.

In 1910 a wireless apparatus was installed on the Kosai-maru, an official inspecting steamer, and in the three lighthouses on the west coast, though the service has not yet been thrown open to the public, and in 1923 a wireless office was opened in Keijo to handle messages sent to and from ships sailing Korean waters and those of the general public. Later on more wireless stations were established in Mokpo, Saishu (Quelpart), Fusan, Chinnampo, Seishin and in Urusan.

The first telephone service was undertaken in 1902 between Keijo and Jinsen, and subscribers numbered only 65. In 1903 an exchange service at Fusan was started, and the number of subscribers increased from 310 at the end of that year to over 1,000 at the time of the postal union with Japan (1905). At that time only 16 lines were in operation, but expansion was rapidly pursued, and a long-distance line between Keijo and Heijo was opened in 1907, and one between Keijo and Fusan in 1911. Also in 1921 direct connexion between Keijo and Mokpo, and Keijo and Gensan was effected, and the 828 lines in operation in 1911 were increased to the large number of 8,408 in 1930 inclusive of 220 long-distance ones. In November, 1926, a Radio Broadcasting office

was established in Keijo and opened to business in February, 1927, subscribers numbering some 2,000 at first but now 10,881. In the following table certain details are given of the telephone service.

Year	Telephone offices	Telephone Subscribers	Calls during the Year
1905 . . . . .	6	1,065	8,489,530
1910 . . . . .	217	6,448	21,260,613
1920 . . . . .	529	13,142	59,974,020
1925 . . . . .	610	26,265	114,510,002
1930 . . . . .	681	32,664	176,455,929

## 72. Money Orders and Postal Savings

Business in money orders and savings was first undertaken in Chosen by the Japanese post-office at Fusan in 1880, and the offices handling such business numbered only 30 at the time of the postal union with Japan. On taking over control of all postal affairs, these offices were increased to 72, and since 1906 has caused post-offices in places containing no inland revenue office to receive and pay out money on behalf of the Government, a departure quite unknown in other countries. In 1910 the system of "*furikae chokin*", or postal savings transfer account, was started in Keijo to facilitate the settling of commercial transactions, and subsequently, business relating to the receipt of local and national revenues, the flotation, sale, and repayment of public loans, etc., was even taken up by the post offices for convenience sake. There are now 704 offices handling money orders and savings.

On account of the lack of any organ for monetary circulation in Chosen, except the Fusan branch of the Dai Ichi Ginko (a Japanese bank), the Japanese post-office at Fusan was authorized to start business in ordinary money orders in 1880, and later on, those at other open ports followed suit. In 1900 the system of telegraphic transfer was introduced, and in 1903 it was made possible to telegraph money in large amounts for the greater con-

venience of business people. The total amount of money received and paid out during 1930 reached over 188,000,000 *yen*, or 20 times that for 1905 and 3.5 times that for 1910.

Business in foreign money orders was also taken up in 1880, though at first only with Hongkong. In 1881, exchange was opened with England, and in 1885 an agreement for exchange was conducted with France. This led to the gradual opening of exchange with other countries, and in 1908 the post-offices at Keijo and seven other centres were specified as exchange offices under the international postal agreement. The amount of money dealt with in this way shows a decided upward tendency since the opening of exchange with China in 1923, and in 1924 passed the 1,000,000 *yen* mark, and though 1930 saw a slight fall it still showed a sixfold gain over 1908.

Since the system of postal savings was first started at Fusan in 1880, the number of offices taking up this important branch of business has gradually increased, and at the time of the postal union with Japan they numbered about 100. As there was no proper organ for saving in Chosen and the people in general had lost all idea of it owing to the heavy taxation and extortion, the number of Korean depositors in 1908 was only some 4,200, their savings amounting to no more than 37,000 *yen*, but with the constant encouragement given to thrift and economy, the amount of their deposits has gradually increased, as may be seen from the following table.

Year	Total Amount		Average Amount per Person	
	Japanese	Korean	Japanese	Korean
1910 . . . . .	3,016,420	190,045	28.98	5.44
1919 . . . . .	12,427,897	2,498,003	43.26	2.23
1925 . . . . .	18,527,307	3,005,867	37.62	2.46
1927 . . . . .	23,007,613	3,720,612	42.29	2.63
1929 . . . . .	31,349,222	4,937,195	52.61	3.33
1930 . . . . .	33,726,244	5,126,622	56.70	3.37

### 73. Post Office Insurance

The Post Office Insurance (Kan-i-Hoken) has become popular and successful in Japan Proper. Stimulated by this fact, the Communication Bureau, with the approval and consent of the Imperial Diet, started the same plan of insurance on Oct. 1, 1929.

Although Post Office Insurance is a Government enterprise, it is by no means a profitable business. The budget itself is separate from that of the Government-General and it is run under a special account. The Government maintains a strict balance of receipts and disbursements, and the net profit is to be divided among the insured.

There are two kinds of insurance, viz, Life Insurance and Old Age Insurance. Persons of either sex between the ages of 12 and 60 are admitted to it. The maximum insurable amount for one person is 450 Yen. But the rate of interest which is the basis of calculation of the insurance fee is a little lower than that of Japan.

For the purpose of handling the business and for the convenience of the public, the Communication Bureau supervises 800 Post Offices scattered throughout Chosen, in each of which applications are received, premiums are collected and insurance money is paid.

During the 18 months (Oct. 1929-March 1931) of its operation 246,922 persons entered the insurance, the insured amount being 48,192,365 *yen*. This result is far better than was expected. In 1930, there were 2,237 deaths insured at 476,939 *yen*. It is interesting to note that the Koreans are 55% of the total subscribers.

### 74. Electric and Gas Undertakings

The first electric enterprise in Chosen was the building of a tramway in Keijo by a joint-stock company organized by an American citizen in 1899, and in 1901 it started the supply of light in addition. Similar works were started in Fusan in 1902

and in Jinsen in 1906, after which little progress was made, for at the time of union with Japan they still numbered but three, with an aggregate capital of 3,000,000 *yen* and a capacity of 1,300 kilowatts. Since that year, however, steady growth has been witnessed in meeting the general increase in demand for electricity, and these undertakings in 1930 numbered 79 in operation with a total capital of 87,000,000 *yen* and a capacity of 239,000 kilowatts. Besides, there were 16 official undertakings for government use and 94 for domestic use.

In 1911 the Government began to make a country-wide investigation of the water-power that might be utilized for generating electricity, and completed it with respect to eleven of the larger rivers in 1914, but as the feasibility of hydro-electric enterprises can be determined only after making long and close inquiry, a more detailed investigation was started in 1922, and the result so far obtained is that 147 sites of promise, with a combined capacity of 2,228,199 k. w. are ascertained to be capable of easy and profitable management. At the present time there are eighteen waterpower plants in Chosen, with twelve already in actual operation.

There are two gas-producing undertakings in Chosen, one at Keijo and the other at Fusan. The former started work in 1909 and the latter in 1915, and the year 1930 saw their capital standing at 2,638,000 *yen* and their productive capacity at 237,357,000 cubic feet a year.

Control of gas was formerly exercised by the police authorities, but, in view of the fact that the business is done as a side line by electric companies, it was transferred in 1919 to the Communications Bureau so that both might be under the same supervision.

## X. POLICE

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### 75. Introductory

The police system in Chosen was more or less established on a modern basis after the conclusion of the Russo-Japanese War in 1905, when the Korean Government engaged a Japanese adviser to institute reform. Proving inadequate to safeguard life and property, it was arranged to make use of the Japanese gendarmerie stationed in the country for the protection of telegraphs and railways, and in 1907 they were additionally charged with the duties of both "high and ordinary police."

In this way the police and gendarmerie were made to work together as guardians of the peace, but they often failed to show a united front in action because of difference in organization, and the need for closer unity was very keenly felt, as the country was constantly suffering from depredations by ruffians and bandits. Accordingly, in June, 1910, shortly before the annexation, they were combined into one force, and placed under the direction of a single authority. A police headquarters was next established in Keijo with the commander-in-chief of the gendarmerie at its head, and a subordinate office in each province with the local gendarme captain in charge of it. According to local requirements, gendarmes and police were separately distributed. Railway centres and peaceful towns had a police station in them with a police sergeant or inspector at its head, while outlying districts were policed by gendarme detachments. By this division of duty it was hoped to ensure the maintenance of order and security with the minimum of trouble, and the system remained unchanged after the annexation, as it seemed unwise to alter it in view of the existing situation.

During the ten years that followed, however, the change in social conditions was so great that the popular cry for a civilian



government became more insistent, and the Government saw the necessity of remodelling the system on the one in force in the homeland. In consequence, in August, 1919, a police bureau was organized in the Government-General as a central organ, thus replacing the former headquarters, and to it was entrusted the entire administration of police and sanitary affairs. At the same time, power over local police was transferred to the provincial governors, a police department was formed in each provincial office with a civil servant at its head, and a police station in every important town and district with a staff of police officers.

The number of gendarmes discharging police duties under the old system was about 8,000, and the replacing of these by civilians, Japanese and Korean, raised the police force to 16,835, including 2,000, new men. This force was distributed among 247 police stations with 121 police "boxes" (Kobansho) in urban districts, and 1,438 police offices in rural districts.

As time went on, their duties grew increasingly heavy, and since nearly half the country was still unprovided with police, extension work was undertaken, and the year 1919 saw 250 urban police stations with 160 police "boxes," and 2,300 rural police offices in existence, with a force of over 20,000 officers and men. Late in 1914, however, following the general retrenchment policy, reduction was made by about 2,000 men, and the present force stands at 1,328 officers and 17,483 men of whom 7,413 are Koreans.

Meanwhile, the police training institute in Keijo was enlarged in scope and brought under the direct management of the Government. Recruits for the service are admitted by examination and go through nine to twelve months' training in this school. The major subjects taught include ethics, law, police administration, criminology, hygiene, gymnastics, etc.

## 76. Police Control

Formerly, the exercise of police control varied as between Koreans and Japanese, each having its own law, but after the establishment

of the present régime it was arranged to bring both under single control and so conduce to the better maintenance of public peace. Some of the more important police regulations revised or enacted in consequence of this were the control of fire-arms, gunpowder, and other explosives, which were issued in 1912, and for steam-engines and motors in 1915. Regarding business control, new regulations for second-hand stores, pawnshops, bath-houses, hotels, restaurants, public notaries, *geisha*, and licensed brothels and prostitutes, were enacted between 1912 and 1916. For the control of traffic, regulations for roads and all kinds of vehicles were enacted from 1913 to 1917, but those for bicycles and automobiles were revised in 1921, and it was then prescribed that, as in Japan, the "keep to the left" rule must be observed. In addition, provisions were made for control of building, hunting, speculation, raising of subscriptions etc.

The first regulations relating to fire-brigades were issued in June, 1915, providing for their formation and operation, but in September, 1917, these were revised so as to be more suited to local conditions. At present there are 965 fire-brigades throughout the country, staffed with 59,135 men, and all expenses are borne by the respective towns.

## 77. Maintenance of Order

In the days when the police system still remained undeveloped, there was always trouble in the country owing to the presence of numerous bandits and vagrants. After 1894, the year in which the famous Tonghak rebellion broke out, whole provinces were thrown into great disorder by these predatory bands, while, on the other hand, the frequency of change in the central government was such as to preclude any idea of security. To make the matter worse, a grave incident happened in July, 1907, when the new agreement concluded between Korea and Japan brought in its train the disbandment of the Korean army. Deeming this a gross reflection upon their loyalty, one of the regiments in Keijo broke out into open mutiny, and this gave rise to riots in many places. In fact,

rioters were rampant everywhere, and, giving themselves out as patriots, abandoned themselves to plunder and murder. Local rowdies and ruffians taking advantage of the prevailing disorder also behaved lawlessly.

As the situation looked very critical, the Japanese troops and gendarmerie were set in motion under a special mandate from the Korean Emperor to co-operate with the Korean police for the suppression of these refractory elements. By the end of 1909 nearly all the trouble-makers had been suppressed, though in remote mountain districts some still made their appearance. After the annexation a reign of tranquillity set in, though there were not a few who still harboured ill-feeling against the Japanese rule, but they were far too feeble to rise in revolt, and the one thing left them was to flee abroad, and from a safe distance preach insurrection to their fellow-countrymen.

During the European War some Koreans, believing in German superiority, recklessly gave out that the time had arrived for the regaining of national rights, and more especially so after the second Russian revolution in 1918, which facilitated the eastern march of German influence and caused foreign powers, including Japan, to dispatch forces to Siberia to check its progress. At this juncture, Korean malcontents abroad started a movement for the union of all their countrymen, and for making known to the world their will for national independence by concerted action within and without. No doubt they were led to such idea by the enunciation of the Wilsonian doctrine of self-determination for small nations, the full meaning of which they were apparently unable to grasp. Be that as it may, in January, 1919, they dispatched propagandists in secret to the interior of their homeland, and also to the city of Tokyo, to rouse to action kindred spirits, whom they found largely among students, and these latter quickly became the centre of the movement.

Meanwhile, members of the Tendo-kyo, the largest of the native religious sects, perceiving this ferment in popular sentiment, became

possessed with the same ambition and soon joined hands with persons of like mind among Buddhists and Christians, and the movement culminated in the uprising on March 1, following.

The so-called independence agitation prevailed over the entire land for a time, but it was completely stamped out in about two months. During the time many Korean Christians were punished more or less severely in connexion with the disturbance, and voices were raised against the Government that it was persecuting Christian converts, but the truth is they were dealt with not because of their faith, but because of their participation in the rising. As a matter of fact, scarcely any members of denominations other than Presbyterian and Methodist were arrested or imprisoned, simply because they stood aloof from politics and took no part in the agitation.

Since that year disaffected Koreans have been able to do nothing of any consequence, as the strengthening of the police force and the popular awakening to the utter futility of the the movement have done much to stop intrigues and also made collective demonstrations practically impossible. Only in the frontier regions have lawless Koreans, living across the Yalu, succeeded at times in crossing the border and wantonly committed murder, arson, and pillage in the districts invaded by them, but the tightened defence of the frontier has since rendered such inroads more hazardous and consequently less frequent, much to the relief of the inhabitants of the frontier provinces.

# XI. PUBLIC HYGIENE

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## 78. Introductory

Until recently Korean sanitation was in a most backward state, for the country had few native doctors possessed of modern knowledge and skill, and the sick were usually placed at the mercy of practitioners of the old Chinese school or of witches or exorcists, instead of being rationally treated, while the lack of proper sanitary arrangements and even good drinking water gave constant rise to various infectious diseases. As medical agencies worthy of the name, there was but a handful of Japanese doctors and foreign medical missionaries practising in Keijo and a few other towns.

Early in the protectorate period, therefore, the first step taken toward sanitary reform was the establishment of a modern hospital called the Tai-Han Iwon (Korean General Hospital) in Keijo, and Dr. S. Sato, a celebrated surgeon in Japan at the time, was made head of it. On the advent of the present régime, further measures were taken for improvement of the existing system, and not only was the Government Hospital (former Tai-Han Iwon) enlarged but similar organs were set up in the provinces, public doctors were appointed to remote districts, special physicians engaged for circuit work in parts difficult of access, and a segregating station for lepers was established on Shoroku Island off the south coast, a place noted for its salubrious climate. Nor did the service along this line stop here, for care was taken that even those Koreans living in the remote borderlands might have medical facilities within easier reach of them. On June 1st, 1928, the Government Hospital was transferred to the newly established Keijo Imperial University and is now known as Daigaku Byo-in.

The authorities next took in hand the matter of drinking water and made the construction or extension of waterworks possible in





40. Daigaku Byo-in (University Hospital), Keijo.



41. Treating morphine addicts at the Government Treatment Stations.





many of the chief towns; they also encouraged the digging of public wells throughout the land. At the same time a considerable sum of money was yearly defrayed to permit of timely action being taken for prevention of epidemics, with the result that even small-pox, once so virulent in Chosen, is now far less the scourge it was, thanks to the fuller enforcement of universal vaccination, while rigid control over the disposal of impurities and other insanitary matters was constantly exercised for the sake of the public health. Meantime, various sanitary regulations relating to physicians, dentists, foods and drinks, drugs, street and house cleaning, disinfection, etc., were drawn up and made effective as conditions called for them.

Although popular confidence in the central and provincial hospitals grew stronger as time went on there still remained much room for their improvement, so the Government in 1919 drew up a plan for extension in its medical service and the hospitals and medical force have since been greatly augmented. At the end of 1930 hospitals numbered 123 including 4 Government and 40 Provincial hospitals, while licensed medical men numbered 1,749 including 796 Japanese, 921 Korean and 32 foreign. In addition, there were 416 licensed dentists, 234 pharmacists, 1,251 midwives, and 1,120 nurses.

The Provincial Hospitals are maintained chiefly by the fees received from the patients, the interest from the Imperial bounty and the subsidy from the national exchequer.

These hospitals spend 1.16 *yen* on the average for one patient per day, but owing to the many free cases treated the receipt is only 71 *sen*, leaving a deficit of 45 *sen*.

It is interesting to note that the average hospital bill for in-patients per day is only 2.12 *yen* and for out-patients 61 *sen*.

In 1930, patients numbering 1,832,783 were treated, the details of which may be seen in the table following.

	In-patients	Out-patients	Total
Free . . . . .	28,064	275,271	303,335
Paying . . . . .	229,974	1,299,474	1,529,448
<b>Total</b> . . . . .	<b>258,038</b>	<b>1,574,745</b>	<b>1,832,783</b>

Up to 1920 no sanitary experts were stationed in the provinces for local investigation and prevention of epidemics, but in that year one expert and two assistants were appointed to each province, and at the same time thirty more medical men were appointed to attend to people in the more remote parts of the country. As for quarantine at seaports, though at first confined to Fusan, Jinsen, and Gensan, it was extended to smaller parts as they too were frequently threatened with invasion by pestilence, and quarantine officers are now stationed at Kunsan, Mokpo, Chinnampo, Seishin, and Shingishu, while the staff at each of the three premier ports has been strengthened.

Hygienic inspection is most indispensable in connection with the official control of food, drinks, and drugs, so from 1913 onward the provinces were gradually equipped with laboratories for chemical examination of these articles, and no province is now lacking in such. Important articles such as medicines, beverages, and comestibles, subject to official inspection during 1930 totalled 50,166 of which 12,270 were declared unwholesome or injurious. Chief among the condemnations were 1,699 samples of patent medicines and 4,748 of beverages. Formerly, no research work in epidemics, in spite of their presence in the country the whole year round, was attempted in the provinces, but since the cholera invasion of 1920 a bacterial laboratory has been formed in every province. The preparation of various prophylactic vaccines, however, is conducted by the one in Keijo only, and by it distributed to various centres at a small charge or else free of cost.

## 79. Control of Opium

Opium smoking has for some time been somewhat prevalent in Chosen, especially in the frontier regions, and there were many who succumbed to it. It is true that in the year 1905 the Korean Government prohibited the importation, manufacture, and sale of opium and pipes, but it was found impossible to enforce the ban effectively. After the annexation, the authorities took every measure to secure a thorough-going control over opium, and the new criminal law for Chosen issued in 1912 contained a special provision for it. Toward confirmed users of opium a rather moderate policy was adopted at first, so that their cure might be effected by degrees, and their number gradually grew less. In September, 1914, the Government gave instructions to the police and other officials concerned to enforce the absolute prohibition of opium smoking, and, taught by past experience, began to treat habitués in a semi-compulsory manner. This is proving highly effective, but it is exceedingly difficult to free the land of the evil entirely as much opium is still smuggled in from China, or prepared secretly in the frontier districts. During the World War, stimulated by the jump in the price of drugs, illicit poppy cultivators increased greatly in number, but on the restoration of peace a turn to the contrary soon became apparent.

Regarding control of poppy cultivation, each province framed its own rules, free cultivation of the plant being prohibited, but the rules being greatly diverse they fell short of securing the desired end. Therefore, in June, 1919, new uniform rules were enforced in the country, and poppy cultivation was absolutely forbidden except for supplying the needs of the medical profession and was limited to a certain area, while all the opium produced had to be handed over to the Government at a standard price, to be sold by it to authorized manufacturers of medicines. The result of poppy cultivation for the years succeeding the enforcement of the opium control law is as follows:

	1930	1929	1928	1927	1926	1925	1924	1920
Area . . . . .	<i>hectares</i> 738	<i>hectares</i> 750	<i>hectares</i> 415	<i>hectares</i> 367	<i>hectares</i> 279	<i>hectares</i> 248	<i>hectares</i> 330	<i>hectares</i> 90
Production . . . . .	<i>K. Gram</i> 1,255 (less water)	<i>K. Gram</i> 1,509	<i>K. Gram</i> 808	<i>K. Gram</i> 768	<i>K. Gram</i> 813	<i>K. Gram</i> 746	<i>K. Gram</i> 1,181	<i>K. Gram</i> 153

Information with regard to the consumption of opium produced in Korea may be found in the section on Government Monopolies.

In 1920 new regulations for control of opium, alkaloids, and other narcotics, based on the principles of the Opium Treaty and of the League of Nations, were issued, by which both export and import of all narcotics were made subject to official permission, though in no instance was the quantity permitted to go beyond the limits of the legitimate demand, and in 1923 were revised to check possible evasion of the rules or crooked dealing.

1. Government Monopoly of Morphine, Heroin and their salts.

As the entrusting of the manufacture of narcotics to private drug manufacturers is attended with the danger of illicit selling, the Government now undertakes both the manufacture and sale.

2. Revision of the Control of Narcotics.

The regulations for control based on the principles of the Opium Treaty, which had been promulgated, were more strictly enforced and illicit dealers punished.

3. Treatment of narcotic Habitueés.

The life of the habitués is pathetic and they become plague spots in society. The Government now demands reports from the habitués, and they are dealt with at the Treatment Stations of Keiki and eight other provinces.

At first, morphine injection was in great favour as a means of curing those addicted to the use of opium, but, unfortunately, abuse of the cure eventually produced many cases of chronic morphinism, and no law existed for its control; therefore in 1921, when regulations for drugs and druggists were published, traffic in morphine was drastically restricted, and in the treatment of morphine victims the method of gradual reduction in doses was applied,

which succeeded in diminishing their number very markedly. Cocaine injection is now being stringently controlled with beneficial results.

In April 1930, the Government-General granted a subsidy of 16,240 yen, in addition to sufficient money to buy the necessary medicine, to be divided among the provinces to assist in the cure of addicts.

As a result 2,837 addicts out of a total of 2,944, who were treated at the provincial morphine asylums were completely cured.

The authorities, therefore, decided to accommodate about 2,000 addicts a year from 1931, but on account of the decrease in the budget it became impossible. Since 1929, however, the Government-General has been pursuing the following plan.

- (1) Efforts shall be made to cure all morphine addicts within ten years.
- (2) All addicts shall be registered and a fixed quantity of morphine administered.
- (3) The Government-General shall monopolize the manufacture and sale of morphine which is supplied to the registered addicts above mentioned.
- (4) Stricter control of morphine shall be enforced and no morphine be used by persons other than registered addicts, and heavier punishments be provided for smugglers and secret sellers of morphine.
- (5) Schools and other institutions of social culture shall educate the public in order to prevent the development of addicts and to assist the already cured to avoid relapse.

On March 3, 1930, the Government-General promulgated an order by which all addicts should be registered, and up to the end of the same year such registered addicts numbered 3,278 out of 5,094 known addicts.

Addicts who are utterly poor or those who require supervision have been placed in Morphine Asylums, of which one is in Keiki and eight in other provinces.



The League of Nations' Commission of Inquiry into Opium Smoking in the Far East, visited Chosen in April 1930 and inspected the Morphine manufactory of the Government-General. They were satisfied with the work and greatly praised the authorities.

The League of Nations placed on record the fact that morphine addicts are registered and information concerning the manufacture and sale of morphine. They expressed their praise of the work done which gave much hope for the future.

### 80. Epidemics and Endemics

It is interesting to know that, in spite of its contiguity to Chinese and Russian territory, the country has never been troubled by pest invasion. Nevertheless, visitation by other epidemics, such as cholera, small-pox, typhoid fever, dysentery, etc., was very frequent and sometimes in a most virulent form. The people in general had little idea of sanitation and refused, in many cases, to be medically treated, being swayed by superstition. Great difficulty was consequently met in working for prevention of epidemics, but the recent progress in Korean social psychology has brought with it a salutary change in this respect.

Cholera has long been familiar to the peninsula. It is said that in the year 1895 over 600,000 perished of the plague in the frontier districts, and again in 1902 about 10,000 fell victim to it in the city of Keijo alone, not to mention other places. The disease usually enters from abroad, especially from China, and greatly varies in activity. In 1919 and 1920 malignant cholera invaded the land, and notwithstanding the preventive measures taken by the authorities, raged furiously, the number of cases reported in 1919 being 17,000, of which 11,000 proved fatal, and 24,000 in 1920 with a death-roll of 13,000. A heavy toll, indeed. Yet compared with former days it can be said that the malady has considerably diminished in severity.

Small-pox formerly prevailed more or less throughout the year.

This was mainly because of the time-honoured superstition among the people that this particular disease must be accepted as an act of God, so they did not attempt in any way to ward off its attack. In 1895 the Korean Government issued vaccination rules aiming at universal enforcement, but no good results were obtained, and numerous cases of the disease were reported every year. On the establishment of the present régime, therefore, great efforts were put forth to combat the disease, and police and sanitary officials were enlisted to disillusion the populace of their old superstition and to preach to them the saving virtue of vaccination. At the same time, large quantities of vaccine were distributed free, and for the vaccination of women female operators were especially engaged. As a consequence, after 1913, cases of small-pox fell to between 300 and 50 a year. In the spring of 1919 the disease again broke out, producing upwards of 2,000 cases. In 1920, malignant small-pox invaded the land from countries adjacent and vaccination was at once resorted to as far as possible, but the disease was fatal in more than 3,500 out of 11,500 cases. In 1921, cases still reached the large number of over 8,300. of which 2,500 were carried off.

Typhoid fever is of yearly occurrence in the country, and many cases of it are reported every year. As the disease requires a certain period to develop, there is always a suspicion that its virus may be spreading before it is discovered, and this makes prevention more difficult. Each time the malady prevails the authorities dispense free to all applicants the preventive injection while all medical agencies are encouraged to make extensive use of it.

As regards other epidemics, in view of their yearly appearance, similar precautions are always and everywhere taken by the authorities in the form of periodical house-cleaning, strict control of food and drinks, early discovery and report of cases, general injection of preventive vaccines, bacterial examination of suspected cases, etc. The table below indicates the number of epidemic cases in 1928 and 1929:

Epidemics	1929		1930	
	Patients	Deaths	Patients	Deaths
Cholera . . . . .	18	15	—	—
Dysentery . . . . .	3,347	742	2,052	419
Typhoid fever . . . . .	6,324	1,036	7,954	1,065
Small-pox. . . . .	523	126	1,418	323
Eruptive typhus. . . . .	1,164	128	1,683	192
Scarlet fever. . . . .	1,606	346	1,495	262
Diphtheria . . . . .	823	313	846	302
Para-typhus . . . . .	359	32	402	21
Cerebro-spinal fever . . . . .	152	91	48	24
<b>Total . . . . .</b>	<b>14,316</b>	<b>2,832</b>	<b>15,898</b>	<b>2,608</b>

Of the so-called endemics the more prominent are distoma, ankylostomiasis, and malaria, the most numerous cases being those of lung-distoma. Besides these, there are other contagious diseases present, such as tuberculosis, leprosy, itch, etc. For lepers a government leprosarium has been established on Shoroku-to, a small island off the southern coast of the peninsula, where a limited number of them are accommodated and segregated. Foreign missionary bodies have also extended their humanitarian activity in this direction, and mission leper asylums are found in three southern towns—Fusan, Taikyu, and Junten.

## 81. Leprosy

Leprosy is endemic in Chosen, and many lepers are to be met with, though mostly in the south. Though no accurate statistics are available, the number of cases in advanced condition is reported to be approximately 7,000, to say nothing of incipient cases. These unfortunate mortals, wandering about the country spreading the invisible germs of their disease, present not only a most miserable sight but are a great menace to the public health. It was by

foreign missionary bodies that the first leper homes, three in number, were established in the south. The Government in turn realised the need of making provision for lepers, and drew up a plan in 1916 for their segregation. Shoroku-to, a small island off South Zenra Province, was selected as a suitable site, and the building of the new institution was started with special aid from the Imperial charity funds and completed in 1917.

The island is noted for its mild climate. The leprosarium is beautifully situated in the hills and occupies a vast space of ground divided into two parts, one for males, the other for females. At present more than six hundred patients are being cared for in the institution. In order to keep the inmates from loafing, the able are employed in such work as they show capacity for, and this gives them a good appetite and relief from ennui. For the medical treatment of lepers a new injection called ethyl-ester of chaulmoolgra oil has been made use of since the winter of 1921, and with such encouraging results that the disease it is no longer regarded as incurable.

## 82. Cattle Disease

Several forms of cattle disease exist in Chosen, some of them being introduced from adjacent Chinese territory and others originating in the peninsula itself, and the country suffers more or less from their visitation every year. Accordingly, in 1915 a preventive law was enacted, and in 1918 the serum laboratory established by the home Government was transferred to the Chosen Administration. At the same time a number of serum stations with veterinary surgeons in charge were set up in important points along the frontier.

Rinderpest, a prominent form of cattle disease, has its permanent cradle on the Chinese side of the Yalu and the Tumen, yet in the face of the ever-present possibility of invasion, especially during the long season of frost, nothing was ever positively done to prevent

it until after the annexation. However, the preventive work since taken up has rendered its invasion less widespread than formerly. In 1927, the disease again crossed the frontier, and 86 cases of it were reported, but in 1929 there were only 5 cases. As preventive measures, enforcement of serum injection into animals in the affected district, isolation of the entire vicinity, close guard against cattle going in and out, and early discovery of fresh cases, if any, were vigorously carried on by police and people.

### 83. Quarantine of Cattle Export

It was in the year 1909 that the quarantine law for export cattle was first issued by the Korean Government and a quarantine station set up at Fusan. The system was in force until 1915 when a new law was introduced. This was revised in the year following to admit of the inclusion of two additional ports for direct export of cattle to Japan. From that time the number exported increased so greatly that every month saw hundreds of cattle idly awaiting official examination, and many were shipped uninspected under pledge of submission to inspection at the port of arrival; so to provide the necessary accommodation quarantine stations were formed in 1925 in four other ports through which cattle might be regularly exported—Jinsen, Chinnampo, Gensan, and Joshin. The detention period for inspection of such cattle is now fixed at between 12 and 20 days at a charge of 2 *yen* per head.

In 1930, cattle exported to Japan proper numbered 37,011 valued at 2,887,722 *yen*.

### 84. Abattoirs

There is a considerable market for meat and even the poorest people invariably use it on all occasions of rejoicing or mourning; hence the extensive raising of cattle throughout the country. In 1930 the total number of abattoirs was 1,380 at which 215,130 cattle

and 247,777 hogs were butchered, the former showing a twenty per cent. decrease and the latter an increase by one per cent. on the preceding year. The killing of cattle was formerly conducted in a most haphazard way, but has been systematized since the enforcement of the new regulations for its control in 1919. However, most abattoirs, except in the larger towns, still leave much to be done from the sanitary standpoint, so efforts are being made to secure their improvement.



## XII. JUSTICE

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### 85. Introductory

The judicial system in Chosen obtained a good start during the protectorate régime, though the initial step toward reform was taken by the Korean Government in the year 1906 by engaging a Japanese legal adviser for its Department of Justice, and later on one for each of the principal courts. But in those days the Korean executive and legislative were badly confused, for within each provincial office stood a court, in which justice was generally administered by local magistrates possessed of little or no knowledge of jurisprudence, and the only independent courts were Keijo Saibansho, or court of first hearing, and the Heiri-in, or court of last instance. Bribery was openly practised, authority abused, and the entire system was in indescribable disorder. It seemed impossible to secure the reality of any reform by indirect assistance, so Prince Ito, first Resident-General, under the new agreement in 1907, caused judicial affairs in Korea to be separated from those of the executive. At that time, after example of Japan, law courts were constituted on the three-trial system, and professional Japanese were appointed to the important posts.

However, in order to ensure security of life and property in Chosen, further consolidation of the system thus initiated was called for, but the Korean Government, being financially powerless to do anything in the matter itself, the entire judicature of the country was at last entrusted to the care of Japan in 1909. As a result of annexation in the year following, extraterritoriality enjoyed by foreign residents came to an end, and all were alike brought under Japanese jurisdiction.

Under the system of "three instances," there are three kinds of law courts with a procurator's office attached to each. Local



42. Korean style Station building at Suigen.



43. Dining-car attached to Express trains.





46. Keijo Law Courts (Local, Appeal and Supreme Courts)



courts deal with the first hearing of both civil and criminal cases. A court of appeal deals with appeals against a judgment pronounced by a local court, while the Supreme Court passes final judgment on appeals against a decision in a court of appeal, and also performs those functions vested exclusively in the highest tribunal. In a local court the hearing is held by a single judge as a rule, but when it is a question of a civil suit involving 1,000 *yen* upward, or a case of personal process or some other specific case, three judges sit. A court of appeal is presided over by three judges and the Supreme Court by five, and so form collegiate courts. Simultaneously with the adoption of this system, rules for lawyers, notaries public, and bailiffs were published.

The competency of Korean judges and procurators was formerly limited to the handling of cases, civil or criminal, in which Koreans only were involved. But such limitation being thought no longer necessary, revision of the regulations for courts of justice was again made in March, 1920, with the object of doing away with all such objectionable discrimination between Korean and Japanese functions on the bench.

At first, judges had no security of tenure, but in 1911 some revision was made in the regulations for law courts by which judges serving the Government-General were secured their positions for life unless they forfeited the privilege by being condemned to imprisonment or by laying themselves open to disciplinary punishment. Nevertheless, as a special provision was still retained making it possible for the Governor-General to order them suspension of duty whenever deemed necessary, the regulations were further modified in 1921 so that judges might enjoy the feeling of absolute stability in their independent capacity.

At the same time an age limit for the bench, modelled on the one in Japan, was introduced, by which the retiring age for the President of the Supreme Court was fixed at 63 and for judges in general at 60, though, on a resolution by a general council of the Supreme Court, the period of service may be prolonged to five



years more in the case of men of very exceptional merit. Eligibility for the bar in Chosen, as defined by law, has been granted to those licensed to practise law in Japan, and those who have previously seved on the Korean bench or bar. But in December, 1921, an examination system for Chosen was specially instituted for candidates, either Korean or Japanese, for the Korean bar. The examination is held once a year and successful candidates since 1922 now number 67.

The system of mediating between disputing parties in minor civil matters, without, if possible, going to law was started in 1910, and shows a good record each year. During 1930 the total number of cases receiving good offices at the hands of the local police reached 664.

### 86. Interterritorial Laws

Owing to the dissimilarity in usages and conditions in Japan proper, Chosen, Formosa, and Kwantung Province each of these component parts of the Japanese Empire was left free to make special law within its own jurisdiction. The consequence was that certain laws enacted in and applicable to one part did not pass in the others, while no legal connexion existed between them for matters of common interest. For, instance, a company established according to the law of any one Japanese territory other than Chosen was not legally recognized in Chosen, and consequently was not permitted to amalgamate with any founded in Chosen, nor to transfer its main office to Chosen. Moreover, a criminal offence committed in a Japanese territory other than Chosen, even though the offender was known to be in the country, could not be brought before the Korean courts because there were no provisions by which action might be taken. In order to remove all such handicaps, interterritorial laws were enacted in 1918, and all were put into force that year, except the provision relating to transfer of one's domicile.

Concerning the transfer of one's domicile, the individual parts of the Empire had so far reserved enforcement of it, owing to the incomplete connexion of census registration between them. In Chosen,

however, the ground having been fully prepared, the transfer law in question was made public in June, 1922. By virtue of this new law Koreans and Japanese intermarrying are legally entitled to be enrolled on the one or the other's family register.

In 1930, there were 786 cases of such marriages.

### 87. Abolition of Flogging

Flogging was long a common form of punishment with the Koreans, and when properly administered was suited to their social condition as a penalty for minor offences. Indeed, in a majority of cases it had a more effective value than the infliction of a short imprisonment or the imposition of a fine. Hence, when the provisions of the criminal law were adjusted and unified in 1912, this method of punishment was still retained for Korean delinquents, though its application was limited to the physically fit, aged men, women, and children being expressly excluded.

In the meantime, it was fully recognized that such system, however effective it might be in its way, was not justifiable in the light of modern penology, while the social awakening of the people made it even more inadmissible. So flogging was finally deleted from the list of penalties in March, 1920.

### 88. Registration System

After the annexation, a registration law for immovables based on the one in force in Japan was enacted to confirm by registration any acquisition, loss, or change of real estate. The system was first adopted in 1914 in the 29 centres furnished with cadastre books as the result of a country-wide survey being carried on. With the completion of the cadastres in other districts its application was extended, and in 1918 it covered the entire land, thus completely superseding the former certification system, and all the business connected with it came into the hands of local courts and their branches.

With regard to perpetual leases in the foreign settlements, it was arranged at the time of annexation that the existing system should be allowed to continue for a time, and each consular office was to conduct registration as before for its nationals in accordance with the law of the country represented. But with the revision effected in the local administration in 1914 this arrangement came to an end, and all business regarding foreign perpetual leases was transferred to the competent law court.

### 89. Revision of Civil Law and Census Registration Law

The civil law for Chosen was promulgated in March, 1912. Though in principle it was based substantively on the one for Japan, much of native usage was contained in those provisions relating specially to legal capacity, relationship, and inheritance. It was found, however, after the lapse of ten years that the advanced social condition was calling for revision and this was done in 1922, making the Japanese civil law applicable to Koreans in matters of nubile age, judicial divorce, bastardy, family council, acceptance of succession, and separation of property, and it was also provided that personal acts mentioned in the law, such as creation of a collateral family, revival of an extinct family, marriage, adoption, and divorce by mutual consent, should become valid when duly reported to the proper authorities.

The census registration law was originally enacted by the Korean Government, but the text being worded too simply and lacking in details of procedure, the administration of it was always attended with much trouble. After a long and careful study, new regulations for census registration were promulgated in 1922, by which not only were marriages between Japanese and Koreans made legally valid, but duplication or non-entry of domicile in the census register, a by-product of unrecognized inter-marriage, was in the main precluded and the status of children born to them was made clear.

## 90. Public Deposit System

Deposits of money and negotiable instruments made by way of meeting obligations, giving security, etc., were taken charge of chiefly by authorized banks or by warehousing companies or other agents especially appointed by the Chosen Administration. However, the financial law of Japan as recently revised wrought an important change in the management of Treasury affairs by adopting in 1921 the system of putting the national receipts on deposit with the Central Bank, instead of holding them in the Treasury itself as hitherto. This necessarily caused revision in the Public Deposit Law to provide for establishment of Public Deposit offices for the conduct of all the foregoing business. Following suit, similar independent organs were established in Chosen in 1922, and they now number 11, each being located in the seat of a Local Court.

## 91. Law Courts

Law courts in 1930 comprised 1 Supreme Court, 3 Courts of Appeal, and 11 Local Courts with 46 branches and 170 sub-branches, with a personnel of 196 judges, 86 procurators, 4 chief clerks, 4 interpreters, and 706 clerks and student-interpreters.

During the year 1911 the number of civil cases received at law courts was about 26,000, but in 1930 they numbered as many as 59,000 odd. Classifying them under typical "first instance" cases records show that: (1) Cases of personal process numbering 190 in 1911 rose to 1,500 in 1930. Such increase was mainly due to legal permission being given to petition for divorce by wives, a thing wholly denied them in former days; (2) cases about landed property numbering 4,430 in 1911 increased to 9,112. This comparatively small increase was surely due to the establishment of titles as the result of land investigation, and also to the confirmation of rights secured by registration; (3) cases involving buildings, only 526 in 1911, soared to 1,447. This may be taken as a reflex of the housing problem which has become very prominent of late;

(4) cases about pecuniary matters numbering some 2,000 in 1911 swelled to 38,668. For this the recent adverse economic condition is largely responsible; (5) cases concerning tenancy, formerly unheard of but now coming to the fore along with the change in the social ideas of the people, reached 618 in 1930.

The number of criminal cases officially taken up reached 7,000 in 1911. Since then a yearly increase has been witnessed, and in 1930 a total of over 48,000 was recorded. The principal cause of this tendency lies in the ever-growing complexity of the social organization, inevitably leading to an increase in crime in general, while the greater efficiency of the police in effecting arrests must be a contributing factor. Another reason by no means without weight is that injured persons, formerly suffering in silence through fear of consequences, no longer hesitate to appeal to justice against wrongs done to them.

Grave crimes, such as murder, robbery, etc., were formerly quite numerous in the country, but it is evident that they have on the whole tended toward diminution year by year, thanks to the better maintenance of order and security, while the decrease in cases of seizure and abduction may be ascribed to the gradual disappearance of such old abuses as the carrying-off of young widows. Intellectual crimes on the other hand, such as fraud, forgery, perjury, etc., have yearly increased, and the tendency is for greater skill to be shown in committing them. As for political offences it may be noted that they have considerably decreased since 1919, though at times some Koreans are arrested holding communistic views. Important criminal cases tried and decided in the first instance are as under:

Year	Felling Forest Trees by Sleuth	Gambling, Lottery	Dispossession of real property	Larceny	Fraud, Blackmail	Forgery, Perjury	Injury	Robbery	Murder	Adultery
1930	3,515	738	676	5,196	1,543	519	3,474	390	265	123
1925	838	2,820	542	3,904	1,279	203	1,889	595	200	90
1921	822	3,215	1,460	4,928	2,439	512	2,984	1,148	303	190
1911	81	1,542	339	3,981	1,358	263	430	1,182	263	601



## 92. Prisons

Most of the prisons under the old régime were attached to police stations, and not only was their accommodation of the worst description but the prisoners suffered gross maltreatment. Indeed, a prison in those days was literally hell, no human interest ever being taken in the condition, physical, or spiritual, of its inmates. Early in the protectorate period, therefore, the matter of prison reform claimed consideration, and new prisons were established in the chief centres. In 1909, the Japanese Government took over by agreement all the judicial functions of the country and ran the prisons on a modern system, and after the annexation, a new prison law was enacted in 1912.

The prisons taken over, 16 in number, were all in old Korean style with but few exceptions, and great difficulty was experienced in their management, so improvements were steadily introduced in their building and equipment to cope with the annual increase in prisoners, and the end of 1919 saw 10 prisons and 13 branches in existence. At present there are 26 prisons, including 10 branches, with 1,750 jailers and warders. Meanwhile, following the example of the homeland, juvenile prisons were established in Kaijo and Kinsen, and in the treatment of female prisoners, comparatively small in number, arrangements were made for their proper accommodation.

For the training of jailers a school was established in 1918, in which accepted applicants are instructed in their new duties, and picked men already in service are occasionally sent to Japan to attend a higher technical course.

In 1909, when the Korean prisons were transferred to Japanese control, the prisoners numbered approximately 5,300. Increasing each year, they rose to some 16,000 in 1922, consequent on the wide-spread disturbance of 1919 and the abolition of flogging in 1920. In 1930 there were about 17,000 prisoners including five hundred females.

Prior to 1909, prison labour was so little practised that convicts



set to work averaged less than 30 per cent. of their number. For the sake of keeping discipline and health, efforts have since been made to find work for all convicts, and at the end of 1919 over 90 per cent. were found work to do. Further to turn to more account the skill and labour of convicts the prisons are now provided with workshops of every kind, and no prisoner is suffered to be idle. The principal trades worked by them are brick-making, paper-making, shoe-making, weaving, tailoring, cabinetwork, stonework, etc. This has not alone added greatly to the physical wellbeing of prisoners but made possible the provision of better bedding, clothing, and food. Each prison has a good staff of medical experts, and this, coupled with sanitary improvements, has almost succeeded in banishing such common diseases as prison-fever and scorbutus, and in greatly lessening the death-rate.

For the mental reform of prisoners, care is taken to give them religious teaching, schooling, and recreation. As chaplains Buddhist priests are generally engaged to serve them, while Christian prisoners are allowed to read the Bible and pastors are at times admitted to give them devotional talks. This proving conducive to the promotion of good behaviour on the part of prisoners, the number of those released on ticket-of-leave has yearly increased.

Prisoners under the age of 18 are made to attend the prison school, where they are taught morals, the Japanese language, arithmetic, etc., so that they may lead an honest life after their discharge.

For the protection of ex-prisoners 27 associations are established in towns in which prisons are situated, and their work is encouraged substantially by the Government. The prisoners aided by these protective organs numbered 9,811 in 1930.

Since the annexation general pardon has been granted to prisoners several times by Imperial grace. The first came at the time of annexation, the second on the demise of Emperor Meiji in 1912, the third on the death of the Empress Dowager Shoken in 1914, the fourth on the great occasion of the Coronation of emperor

Taisho in 1915, the fifth after the marriage of the Korean Prince Yi, Jr. to the Japanese Princess Nashimoto-miya, which took place in April, 1920, the sixth in January, 1924, to commemorate the marriage of the Japanese Crown Prince, the seventh, on the death of Emperor Taisho, in February, 1927, and the eight, the latest one, in commemoration of the Coronation of the present Emperor in November, 1928.

## XIII. LOCAL ADMINISTRATION

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### 93. Introductory

Under the old regime there existed, in addition to various local offices, a number of other distinct organs, including those for Japanese, Chinese, and foreign residents, and their relations were so mixed that with the advent of the new regime their readjustment was imperative, but sudden radical changes were avoided as far as possible, and even the question of foreign settlements was held over as it required delicate negotiation with the powers interested. So a beginning was made by closing Japanese residencies and revenue offices, and forming a department in each of the thirteen provinces to take charge of financial affairs.

Although the administrative boundaries of urban and rural districts were left as before, there was wide discrepancy in their area, population, and resources, and it followed that some towns and villages bore a disproportionate burden of taxation. Accordingly, the area of each county (*kun*) was reduced or extended to about forty square *ri* (one sq.ri=15.42 sq.Km.) with an average population of 10,000, and that of each town or village to four square *ri* with an average of 800 families, while each municipality was reduced to its natural limits by taking from it adjacent villages. This alteration left the number of cities (*fu*) as before at twelve but reduced counties from 317 to 220, and towns and villages from 4,322 to 2,493. In addition, two island districts, Quelpart and Woolungdo) were formed with a governor for each. Below are given the local administrative divisions as at present constituted :—

Province	Area	Percentage of Total Area	Divisions			Seat of Provincial Government
			Municipalities	Districts	Towns & Villages	
Keiki . . . . .	(Sq. Kilo) 12,814	5.8	(in) 3	(kun) 20	(myen) 248	Keijo
North Chusei . . . . .	7,418	3.4	—	10	110	Seishu
South Chusei . . . . .	8,106	3.7	—	14	175	Koshu
North Zenra . . . . .	8,531	3.9	1	14	188	Zenshu
South Zenra . . . . .	13,887	6.3	1	22	268	Kwoshu
North Keisho . . . . .	18,989	8.6	1	23	272	Taikyu
South Keisho . . . . .	12,305	5.6	2	19	253	Fusan
Kokai . . . . .	16,732	7.6	—	17	221	Kaishu
South Heian . . . . .	14,925	6.7	2	14	165	Heijo
North Heian . . . . .	28,445	12.8	1	19	193	Shingishu
Kogen . . . . .	26,263	11.9	—	21	177	Shunsen
South Kankyo . . . . .	31,979	14.5	2	16	140	Kanko
North Kankyo . . . . .	20,347	9.2	1	11	81	Ranan
<b>Total . . . . .</b>	<b>220,741</b>			<b>14</b>	<b>220</b>	<b>2,491</b>

A provincial governor, while being subordinate to the Governor-General administers the affairs of his province, supervises all public bodies, and is authorized to issue local ordinances. At first he had no power over the local police, for this stood entirely separate from all other executive organs and was controlled solely by a police captain, but in August, 1919, when the gendarme system came to an end, the control of the local police was transferred to the provincial governors, and in each province a police department was formed, composed of police, sanitary, and quarantine officers. During the initial stages of the new administration a policy of centralization was necessarily adhered to, but the adoption of a policy of decentralization necessitated by the progress made in social matters has led to the powers of a provincial governor being greatly widened.

As for the abolition of the foreign settlements, it was found possible in March, 1914, to accomplish it by agreement with the nations concerned. In the following month, on the new municipal system coming into force, jurisdiction of the foreign settlements was

incorporated into that of their respective cities, while management of Japanese public education in those cities was handed over to the Japanese School Associations organized within each municipality. In this way the question of adjustment and unification of the local administrative system was brought to a successful conclusion.

In consequence of the above revision all business regarding the registration of perpetual leases, hitherto conducted by the consular representatives of the Powers interested, was turned over to the law courts. A perpetual lease being a particular right of property, the provision of ownership was correspondingly applied, and foreign lease-holders of land in perpetuity were given the option of converting their leases into actual ownership, while those preferring to make no alteration in their titles were required to pay taxes as a rule on a par with actual landowners.

#### 94. Formation of Local Councils

In July, 1920, further important revision was made in the local system, and advisory bodies were established throughout the country. These organs were meant as the first step toward realization of local self-government, since the condition of Chosen did not justify immediate enforcement of a complete system of local autonomy, while the people themselves needed a course of training to fit them for self-government.

The local administrative system in force in Chosen had, as its lower organs, Fu (municipal) and Myen (town and village) magistracies with prefects and headmen appointed by the Government, while Koreans and Japanese each maintained a separate organ for the conduct of educational affairs. There were also irrigation associations, and these and the school associations were the only organs possessed of anything approaching a self-governing aspect. Although all the larger towns had their own advisory bodies, they were formed of comparatively few members, all of whom were officially appointed, so they did not represent the will of the people

in its full sense, on the other hand, each province, city, and district had its body of councillors, but since its members were appointed and their posts were merely honorary they scarcely served as spokesmen for the people at large.

In revising the organization of these local bodies, therefore, it was arranged that their membership should be more elective and be increased in number, and at the same time all rural communities should be provided with similar institutions for discussion of financial and other important matters. Since, however, the elective system was quite new to the people and, if enforced without discrimination, might bring about trouble amongst a people liable to party feeling, it was decided that members should be elected by popular vote only in the cities and in certain designated towns, and be appointed in all other places by the district magistrates, who in making such appointment were bound to respect the opinion of the principal inhabitants in their localities.

The revised system came into effect in October, 1920, and the first election of members of councils of municipalities and designated towns was held in the following month. The term of representation in these councils being three years, the second election was held in November, 1923, the third in November, 1926 and the fourth in November, 1929, and each time great improvement was seen in the manner of both canvassing and voting. The following list gives the result of the fourth election in twelve cities and forty three designated towns :

		Voters	Votes Cast	Members Elected	Percentage
Cities (Fu)	{ Japanese . . . .	15,026	12,827	152	85
	{ Korean . . . .	9,793	7,675	82	78
Towns (Myen)	{ Japanese . . . .	7,781	6,950	239	89
	{ Korean . . . .	9,836	8,082	241	82

The fourth election and appointment of members of provincial councils took place in March, 1930, and proved more successful



than either of the previous elections. Below is shown the present composition of these provincial councils :

	Members Appointed	Members Elected	Total
Japanese . . . . .	71	23	94
Korean. . . . .	48	219	267

The revenues of the provinces are mainly obtained by making additional levies on the land and urban land taxes, and by imposing house and household, market, abattoir, fishing, shipping and vehicle taxes, supplemented by subsidies from the Treasury and receipts derived from government undertakings. The revenue thus obtained meets the outlays for public works, industries, education, sanitation, etc., of a local nature. Besides, there is a certain amount of interest accruing from the Imperial donation funds which goes to charitable works. The incidence and management of local expenditure are much the same as those in the homeland, save for the two items of local police and district office expenses, and these, from financial considerations, are borne by the Treasury.

The aggregate account for the provinces in the year 1910 amounted to a little more than 1,300,000 *yen*, but rising year by year through the general increase in receipts, it figured at over 7,500,000 *yen* in 1919, showing increase by nearly six times, and still more markedly has this been the case since 1920 by reason of the increase in taxation and the greater subsidy from the Treasury, as well as by extension in various local enterprises, thus swelling the budget for 1931 to 54,111,155 *yen*, or forty times as large as that for 1910.

Description	1931	1930	1929	1919
<b>Revenue</b>	<i>Yen</i>	<i>Yen</i>	<i>Yen</i>	<i>Yen</i>
Additional Levy on Land Tax . .	9,445,029	9,415,222	9,388,664	1,021,172
Household & House Tax . . . .	5,245,584	5,173,819	5,154,419	1,593,991
Market Tax . . . . .	39,456	55,661	53,675	412,329
Abattoir & Slaughtering Tax . .	591,188	658,728	702,047	333,048
Fishing Tax . . . . .	220,451	217,198	310,676	—
Shipping Tax . . . . .	1,223	1,299	1,543	—
Vehicle Tax . . . . .	848,589	908,624	854,531	—

Description	1931	1930	1929	1919
Tax on Real Estate Purchase . . . . .	1,271,381	1,288,340	1,269,616	—
Receipts from Imperial Donation Funds . . . . .	926,305	965,759	964,575	910,158
State Subsidy . . . . .	7,593,223	7,353,692	7,838,095	1,805,616
Balance Transferred . . . . .	1,260,825	1,339,476	1,666,254	343,611
Other Sources . . . . .	26,185,511	5,182,635	5,376,664	1,076,988
<b>Total . . . . .</b>	<b>54,111,155</b>	<b>32,566,453</b>	<b>32,474,759</b>	<b>7,547,813</b>
<b>Expenditure</b>				
Civil Engineering . . . . .	23,552,637	5,690,822	6,480,077	1,846,244
Industrial Encouragement . . . . .	9,956,384	7,037,429	7,106,563	1,581,734
Affording Means of Livelihood . . . . .	1,325,662	1,350,539	1,378,079	62,580
Education . . . . .	12,094,082	12,243,878	12,378,158	2,113,713
Sanitation & Hospitals. . . . .	3,134,236	2,746,748	2,739,958	77,964
Relief & Charity . . . . .	61,310	165,313	165,695	107,033
Provincial Councils . . . . .	112,142	73,404	71,586	—
Social Works . . . . .	355,547	346,778	331,146	—
Transferred to Imperial Donation Funds . . . . .	13,478	37,822	27,503	71,378
Official Expenses . . . . .	1,040,091	1,018,927	1,007,753	—
Loan Redemption . . . . .	745,650	232,216	265,583	—
Miscellaneous. . . . .	1,198,854	1,123,299	1,067,100	643,983
Reserves . . . . .	521,082	488,276	456,158	143,181
<b>Total . . . . .</b>	<b>54,111,155</b>	<b>32,560,453</b>	<b>32,474,759</b>	<b>7,547,813</b>

### 95. Undertakings with Imperial Fund

The Imperial donation of 30,000,000 *yen* was a special grant made to Chosen in 1910, and of this amount 17,398,000 *yen* was allotted to cities and districts for creation of a fund for charitable works. The funds are held in permanent trust by the provincial governors, and the interest derived from them is devoted to providing works for the poor and unemployed, subsidizing public school for Koreans, and to giving relief to sufferers in time of calamity. The rapid change in social conditions disadvantageously affecting the living of the lower classes, various social works have been started

since the year 1920, and the establishment of public markets, bath-houses, lodging-houses, agencies for labourers, free medical treatment of the needy sick, and the care of orphans, etc., are being extensively carried on.

Undertakings with the Imperial grant are under the control of provincial governors, and in many cases coincide with similar works at provincial expense, so their specific accounts, kept separate up to then, were incorporated in the provincial budgets in 1917 for the sake of greater convenience in management.

## 96. Municipalities

Most of the present cities have grown out of the open ports, and in them several communities, Korean, Japanese, and foreign, formerly existed side by side, each pursuing its own system of control, so that many obstacles were experienced in conducting civic administration. In April, 1914, therefore, new organic regulations for urban districts were enforced, and all residents alike were brought under the same organization.

Cities were then created legal bodies, and their respective jurisdictional districts were made to coincide with those established as State executive divisions. The prefects, who are appointed by the State, represent *ex officio* the inhabitants, and conduct all municipal business with the aid of municipal councils as advisory organs.

The expenditure by cities was in principle to be defrayed with the income derived from rents, fees, and public properties, but these sources were quickly found inadequate and the chief source of revenue now lies in municipal taxes in the form of a sur-tax on the State taxes on urban land, income, and Exchanges, and local taxes on buildings, ships, and vehicles, aided by other special taxes, of which the major is the business tax. The chief items of expenditure are waterworks, sewerage, street improvement, markets, etc. The table below gives the aggregate accounts of the cities (*fu*) for recent years, revenue and expenditure being understood to be equal :

1931	1930	1929	1928	1927	1924	1919
<i>Yen</i> 18,148,302	<i>Yen</i> 12,038,772	<i>Yen</i> 16,250,236	<i>Yen</i> 11,647,870	<i>Yen</i> 10,916,018	<i>Yen</i> 8,465,462	<i>Yen</i> 2,388,121

The average amount of the burden on each municipal household was 6.69 *yen* for the year 1919, and in 1930 was 9.02 *yen*. In each city the Korean population is two to four times as large as the Japanese, yet taking into account their economic condition, their share of the burden is generally in inverse ratio to that of the Japanese. Particulars are given in the following table:

Description	Year	Japanese	Korean	Foreign	Total
Municipal Population	1930	<i>Yen</i> 257,028	<i>Yen</i> 716,182	<i>Yen</i> 21,138	<i>Yen</i> 994,348
	1929	245,198	677,235	17,483	939,916
	1928	234,957	622,932	17,263	875,152
	1925	214,198	535,590	13,925	763,513
Municipal Taxes	1930	1,257,857	698,120	82,140	2,038,117
	1929	1,347,201	609,954	72,754	2,029,909
	1928	1,353,457	589,328	68,417	2,011,202
	1925	1,397,522	494,301	74,335	1,966,168
Average per Household	1930	<i>Yen</i> 19.86	<i>Yen</i> 4.44	<i>Yen</i> 14.94	<i>Yen</i> 9.02
	1929	22.05	4.09	15.58	9.45
	1928	23.10	4.24	15.20	9.96
	1925	25.99	4.19	18.80	11.36
Percentage of Burden	1930	61.7%	34.3%	4.0%	100%
	1929	66.4	30.0	3.6	100
	1928	67.0	29.3	3.7	100
	1925	71.1	25.1	3.8	100

### 97. Towns and Villages

Soon after the annexation regulations for rural areas were published in order to systematize their management and in 1913 the number of towns and villages was reduced by one half to give effect to this executive readjustment, and in 1917 a new system was

introduced, by which recognition was given them for the first time as public bodies, and this marked an epoch in the history of local administration.

According to the new system, towns or villages are the lowest of the executive divisions, and are local bodies conducting all public business within their jurisdiction. Their expenditure is met by the income from levies, fees, and rents, but certain designated towns may float loans for their larger enterprises. To each is attached four to eight honorary advisers as a consulting body.

After the government re-organization in 1919 it was considered advisable to make revision in the existing system, and this was done in July, 1920. The most important point was the creation of new councils as consulting bodies in all rural districts, membership of which was made nominative or elective according to the standing of the town or village.

At present the number of towns and villages is 2,491 including forty one designated towns. Their total expenditure figured in 1919 at some 6,093,000 *yen* and increased in 1931 to 22,808,179 *yen*, due to the growing expansion of works with which they are charged. Works common to a majority of them are roads, bridges, embankments, afforestation, agricultural and sericultural improvement, cemeteries, crematories, abattoirs, isolation hospitals, water supply, drainage, disinfection, fire brigades, defence against floods, etc.

Towns and villages are mentioned together, because in Korean both go under the name "Myen" which stands for either a town or village according to population. A designated town is a Myen specially nominated by the Government on account of its comparative commercial or industrial importance, and of containing a minimum of 1,500 families, of which one-half at least are concentrated in one point. The cardinal differences between designated and ordinary Myen are: (a) Membership of the Myen council is elective in the case of the former but appointive in the case of the latter. (b) The one is authorized to raise loans when necessary for carrying out new enterprises but the other is denied such privilege. (c) In a designated

Myen householders are required to pay a household tax averaging four *yen* while in the ordinary Myen less than half the amount is the rule.

### 98. Management of Public Common Schools for Koreans

In cities and local districts the management of Common school education is covered by money raised locally.

In 1920 new regulations were issued authorizing the levying of school rates, collection of rents, raising of public loans, etc., and also providing for the creation of school councils as advisory organs, the members to be either elected or appointed.

In 1918 public common schools for Korean children numbered only 466 throughout the country, and the expenditure on them amounted to 1,835,000 *yen*, of which about ten per cent. fell upon the Korean population, the average burden on each household being as low as six *sen*. However, in view of the ever-growing need of common education among the people, provision was made for establishment of as many more schools as possible, and this naturally entailed large increase in expenditure and consequent increase in the school tax and government financial aid.

Description	1930	1926	1922	1918
Schools . . . . .	1,643	1,225	947	466
Expenditure . . . . .	15,297,369	14,039,000	13,309,000	1,835,000
School Tax . . . . .	3,445,732	6,970,000	6,511,000	195,000
Average Burden per Household	<small>Yen</small> 1.04	<small>Yen</small> 2.00	<small>Yen</small> 2.03	<small>Yen</small> 0.06

### 99. School Associations for Japanese

School Associations exist solely for the conduct of all affairs affecting Japanese public education in Chosen. The first regulations for them were made in 1914. According to the revised regulations,



a school association is organized by the Japanese residents earning their own living, and has a council composed of 6 to 18 elected members for discussion of school finance. In cities it is controlled by the prefect as a rule, but in other places by a representative appointed by the provincial governor, and with few exceptions the post is an honorary one.

School associations maintain elementary schools in general, though in cities they also maintain higher schools. Under their management at the end of May, 1930 were 463 primary schools, 24 girls' high schools, 2 commercial schools, 1 girls' commercial school, 8 elementary industrial schools, and 5 kindergartens.

Their chief source of revenue lies in assessments on the Japanese population of their jurisdictional areas, and their upkeep is not an easy matter in most cases, so the Government grants them not only yearly subsidies toward ordinary expenses but special help for school building and equipment. Since the year 1920 the increase in salaries and expenses due to the continual rise in prices, together with the increase in schools, has caused considerable swelling in the general accounts, as will be seen in the table below :

Year	Number of Associations	Population forming Associations	Budget	Average Burden per Household
1930	440	452,530	6,071,979	23.15
1926	426	392,934	5,753,111	24.85
1922	401	343,905	5,580,526	25.23
1918	348	305,245	1,861,580	9.44

### 100. Irrigation Associations

In Chosen the production of rice is a matter of the greatest importance, and for developing this particular industry and thereby enhancing the wealth of the country nothing is more essential than irrigation works. Convinced of this obvious fact, the former Korean Government promulgated regulations permitting associations to be organized for conducting irrigation, drainage, and reclamation of



45. Irrigation Reservoir at Taigari, Ekioku Irrigation Association,  
North Zenra Province.



46. Keikairo (Banquet-Hall), North Palace, Keijo.



waste land. The system adopted, however, was much too simple to keep pace with the times, so in conformity with the progress in modern agricultural ideas new regulations were framed and put into force in 1917.

These associations are recognized as juridical persons with irrigation, draining, and flood prevention as their object, and membership is confined to the owners of the land or other properties in the district served by any one association. Each of them has a president and secretaries in addition to a council whose function it is to consider financial and other matters, and is authorized to levy rates from its members for its maintenance, as well to raise public loans for new enterprises, and, in case of need, can co-operate with others by forming unions. In 1919, with a view to the promotion of their works, regulations were issued providing for the subsidizing of these associations.

Irrigation systems are now being undertaken in all the provinces, and associations engaging in the work in greater number and on a larger scale are found mostly in the south, especially in North Zenra which claims the largest of them. In 1930, associations in existence numbered 177, of which four were formed prior to 1910, while the vast majority of the remainder date from 1920 onward.

# APPENDIX

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## **Treaty of Annexation, Signed on August 22nd, 1910, and Promulgated on the 29th of August.**

His Majesty the Emperor of Japan and His Majesty the Emperor of Korea, having in view the special and close relations between Their respective countries, desiring to promote the common weal of the two nations and to assure permanent peace in the Extreme East, and being convinced that these objects can be best attained by the annexation of Korea to the Empire of Japan, have resolved to conclude a Treaty of such annexation, and have for that purpose appointed as Their Plenipotentiaries that is to say :—

His Majesty the Emperor of Japan, Viscount Masataka Terauchi, His Resident-General ;

And His Majesty the Emperor of Korea, Yi Wan Yong, His Minister President of State ;

Who, upon mutual conference and deliberation, have agreed to the following Articles ;

Article I. His Majesty the Emperor of Korea makes complete and permanent cession to His Majesty the Emperor of Japan of all rights of sovereignty over the whole of Korea.

Article II. His Majesty the Emperor of Japan accepts the cession mentioned in the preceding Article, and consents to the complete annexation of Korea to the Empire of Japan.

Article III. His Majesty the Emperor of Japan will accord to Their Majesties the Emperor and ex-Emperor and His Imperial Highness the Crown Prince of Korea and their Consorts and Heirs such titles, dignity, and honour as are appropriate to Their respective ranks, and sufficient annual grants will be made for the maintenance of such titles, dignity, and honour.

Article IV. His Majesty the Emperor of Japan will also accord appropriate honour and treatment to the members of the Imperial House of Korea and their heirs other than those mentioned in the preceding Article, and the funds necessary for the maintenance of such honour and treatment will be granted.

Article V. His Majesty the Emperor of Japan will confer peerages and monetary grants upon those Koreans who, on account of meritorious services, are regarded as deserving such special recognition.

Article VI. In consequence of the aforesaid annexation, the Government of Japan assumes the entire government and administration of Korea and undertake to afford full protection for the persons and property of Koreans obeying the laws there in force, and to promote the welfare of all such Koreans.

Article VII. The Government of Japan will, so far as circumstances permit, employ in the public service of Japan in Korea those Koreans who accept the new régime loyally and in good faith and who are duly qualified for such service.

Article VIII. This treaty, having been approved by His Majesty the Emperor of Japan and His Majesty the Emperor of Korea, shall take effect from the date of its promulgation.

In faith whereof, the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed this Treaty, and have affixed thereto their seals.

Viscount Masataka Terauchi,  
*Resident-General.*

The 22nd day of the 8th month of the 43rd year of Meiji.

Yi Wan Yong,  
*Minister President of State.*

The 22nd day of the 8th month of the 4th year of Yung hui.

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### Imperial Rescript on Annexation

We, attaching the highest importance to the maintenance of permanent peace in the Orient and the consolidation of lasting security to Our Empire and finding in Korea constant and fruitful sources of complication, caused Our Government to conclude in 1905 an agreement with the Korean Government by which Korea was placed under the protection of Japan in the hope that all disturbing elements might thereby be removed and peace assured for ever.

For the four years and over which have since elapsed, Our Government have exerted themselves with unwearied attention to promote reforms in the administration of Korea, and their efforts have, in a degree, been attended with success. But, at the same time, the existing régime of Government in that country has shown itself hardly effective to preserve peace and stability, and, in addition, a spirit of suspicion and misgiving dominates the whole Peninsula. In order to maintain public order and security and to advance the happiness and well-being of the people, it has become



manifest that fundamental changes in the present system of government are inevitable.

We, in concert with His Majesty the Emperor of Korea, having in view this condition of affairs and being equally persuaded of the necessity of annexing the whole of Korea to the Empire of Japan in response to the actual requirements of the situation, have now arrived at an arrangement for such permanent annexation.

His Majesty the Emperor of Korea and the members of His Imperial House will, notwithstanding the annexation, be accorded due and appropriate treatment. All Koreans, being under Our direct sway, will enjoy growing prosperity and welfare, and with assured repose and security will come a marked expansion in industry and trade. We confidently believe that the new order of things now inaugurated will serve as a fresh guarantee of enduring peace in the Orient.

We order the establishment of the office of Governor-General of Korea. The Governor-General will, under Our direction, exercise the command of the army and navy, and a general control over all administrative functions in Korea. We call upon all Our officials and authorities to fulfill their respective duties in appreciation of Our will and to conduct the various branches of administration in consonance with the requirements of the occasion, to the end that Our subjects may long enjoy the blessings of peace and tranquility.

[HIS IMPERIAL MAJESTY'S SIGN-MANUAL]

[PRIVY SEAL]

The 29th day of the 8th month of  
the 43rd year of Meiji.

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## **The Late Korean Emperor's Rescript on Cession of Sovereignty**

(Promulgated on August 29, 1910)

Notwithstanding Our unworthiness We succeeded to a great and arduous task, and from Our accession to the Throne down to the present time We have used Our utmost efforts to follow the modern principles of administration. In view, however, of the long-standing weakness and deep-rooted evils, We are convinced that it would be beyond Our power to effect reforms within a measurable length of time. Day and night We have been deeply concerned about it, and have been at a loss to find the means how to rectify the lamentable state of things. Should it be left as it goes on,

allowing the situation to assume more serious phase, We fear that We will finally find it impossible to adjust it in any way. Under these circumstances We feel constrained to believe it wise to entrust Our great task to abler hands than Ours, so that efficient measures may be carried out and satisfactory results obtained therefrom. Having taken the matter into Our serious consideration and firmly believing that this is an opportune time for immediate decision, We have ceded all the rights of sovereignty over Korea to His Majesty the Emperor of Japan in whom We have placed implicit confidence and with whom We have shared joy and sorrow from long time since, in order to consolidate the peace of the Extreme East and ensure the welfare of Our people.

You, all the people, are expected not to give yourselves up to commotion, appreciating the present national situation as well as the trend of the times, but to enjoy the happiness and blessings by pursuing your occupations in peace and obeying the enlightened new administration of the Empire of Japan. We have decided to take this step by no means disregarding your interest but in Our eagerness to relieve you of this deplorable situation. We command you, therefore, to take due cognizance of Our wishes.

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### **Imperial Rescript Concerning the Reorganization of the Government-General of Chosen**

(Promulgated on August 19, 1919)

We have made it Our aim to promote the security and welfare of Our territory of Korea, and to extend to the native population of that territory as Our beloved subjects a fair and impartial treatment in all respects, to the end that they may without distinction of persons lead their lives in peace and contentment. We are persuaded that the state of development at which the general situation has now arrived calls for certain reforms in the administrative organization of the Government-General of Korea, and We issue Our Imperial command that such reforms be put into operation. The measures thus taken are solely designed to facilitate the working of administration and to secure good and enlightened government in pursuance of Our settled policy, and fulfilment of the altered requirements of the country. Especially in view of the termination of the war in Europe and of the rapid changes in the conditions of the world do We consider it highly desirable that every effort should be made for the advancement of the national resources and the well-being of the people. We call upon all public functionaries concerned

to exercise their best endeavours in obedience to Our wishes in order that the people, diligent and happy in attending to their respective vocations, may enjoy the blessing of peace and contribute to the growing prosperity of the country.

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## **Governor-General's Instruction to High Officials Concerning Administrative Reforms**

(Issued on Sept. 3, 1919)

The main policy of the administration of Chosen is clearly embodied in the Imperial rescript issued on the occasion of the annexation of Chosen in 1910. The progress made by Chosen since she was brought under Japanese rule, in education, industry, communications, sanitation, and other directions, has been remarkable, thanks to the efforts of those who have been responsible for the administration of the country. It cannot be denied, however, that during the ten years that have elapsed since the annexation of Chosen the general affairs in the peninsula have undergone such change that the Government has thought it advisable to frame and promulgate a new organization of the Government-General of Chosen.

The purport of the revised official organization is to enlarge the application of the principle of justice and equity, which is the keynote of the Imperial rescript recently issued. The official organization has been altered in such a way that either a civil or military man be appointed at the head of the administration in Chosen. The gendarmerie system has been abolished and replaced by the ordinary police system. Further, an improvement has been introduced in the matter of the eligibility for appointment of Koreans as officials. The whole aim and object of the revised organization is, in short, to give more happiness and satisfaction than is the case at present by bringing their treatment socially and politically on the same footing as the Japanese.

I am not well conversant with all the phases of affairs in Chosen and will have to depend on your guidance and suggestions in carrying out the object of the Imperial rescript. At the same time, I would like to call your attention to the following points in regard to the administration of Chosen.

All officials of the Government-General should do their best to discharge their duties in a conscientious and impartial manner, so that the public may

be induced to rely on them. All official routine should be simplified and made easier, avoiding red-tape as far as possible. The rights of the people should be respected, and the freedom of press and speech should not be interfered with unless it is distinctly calculated to be inimical to the preservation of peace. Special attention should be paid to the improvement in education, industry, communications, police, sanitation, and social works, as well as in general administrative and judicial matters, so that the welfare of the Koreans may be advanced with the ultimate object of the establishment of local autonomous government.

What is required of the officials who are charged with the administration of Chosen is that they should acquaint themselves with the general trend of ideas among the Koreans and adopt a method of administration which will be in keeping with the requirements of the times. In other words, efforts should be made so that the political foundations may be placed on a firm, secure basis. The Koreans and Japanese must be treated alike as members of the same family. If the officials in Chosen try to live up to the ideals set forth in the Imperial rescript, there is no doubt that the Koreans will be induced to recognise the benefit of Japanese rule.

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### **Governor-General's Proclamation to the People of Chosen**

(Issued on September 10, 1919)

On my assumption of duty as Governor-General, the organization of the Government-General was revised. Accordingly, I desire to address a few words to the people at large.

That the administrative policy of Chosen should be based on the great principle of placing the Japanese and Korean people on an equal footing and should aim at promoting their interests and happiness, as well as at securing the permanent peace of the Far East, was determined upon at the very beginning. Those successively charged with the administration of this peninsula duly appreciated its meaning and strove to improve and develop its people and resources. The people, too, diligently engaged in their business. It is now recognized at home and abroad that the present development of Chosen came as the result of their joint efforts. It goes without saying, however, that all administrative institutions must be planned and executed in conformity with the standard of popular living and the progress of the times, so that appropriate measures may be carried out and popular desires prevented from taking a wrong course. The times have

progressed so much and civilization too that it is difficult to draw a comparison between this and former days. Since the great European War was brought to an end, moreover, the condition of the world and human psychology have undergone a marked change. In deference to this hard fact His Majesty's Government, through a revision in the Organic Regulations, enlarged the sphere of appointment for the Government-General, reformed the police system, and made such provision for simplification and prompt transaction of State business and the diffusion of enlightened administration as to bring them in perfect accord with the forward movement of this age. On assuming my present duty by Imperial order I determined in my own mind to pursue faithfully the State policy and vindicate the spirit of annexation. I am determined to superintend officials under my control and encourage them to put forth greater efforts to act in a fairer and juster way, and promote the facilities of the people and the unhindered attainment of the people's desires by dispensing with all formality. Full consideration will be given to the appointment and treatment of Koreans so as to secure the right men for the right places, and what in Korean institutions and old customs is worthy of adoption will be adopted as a means of government. I also hope to introduce reform in the different branches of administrative activity, and enforce local self-government at the proper opportunity, and thereby ensure stability for the people and enhance their general Well-being. It is most desirable that the government and governed throw open their hearts and minds to each other and combine their efforts to advance civilization in Chosen, solidify its foundation of enlightened government, and thus answer His Majesty's benevolent solicitude. If anybody is found guilty of unwarrantably refractory language or action, of misleading the popular mind, and of impeding the maintenance of public peace, he will be met with relentless justice. May it be that the people at large will place reliance on all this.

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### **Governor-General's Statement on the Fifteenth Anniversary of the Present Regime in Chosen**

(Issued on Oct. 1, 1925)

To-day we celebrate the fifteenth anniversary of the new régime in Chosen and our minds are naturally filled with memories of the past. Fifteen years ago the present régime was established immediately following the annexation. The annexation itself was a great epoch-making event in



modern history and was brought about with the high aim of insuring for the millions in this peninsula the enjoyment of peace and enhancement of their welfare, while perpetuating the peace in the Orient and safeguarding the security of the Empire. Since Japan and Chosen are adjacent to each other across a narrow strip of water and possess vital interests closely interwoven, together with homogeneity of race and culture, it is but natural as well as logical for them to be united into one body politic for their mutual benefit. Chosen was for long pre-occupied with internal strife, besides labouring under constant pressure from neighbouring powers, and so eventually became exhausted, and even to-day she finds herself lagging behind other countries in civilization. To lift up Chosen from this deplorable state of national existence it was of first importance to develop her economic resources and help her overwrought masses so that they might keep pace with the progress of the world, and there was no better means to do this than to make one family of Japan and Chosen and establish here in this land a complete and liberal government. Annexation, therefore, was really an inevitable yet natural consequence. Since the new régime was instituted we have exerted ourselves to the utmost in the interests of Chosen by undertaking various enterprises commensurate with the cultural requirements of the times, with the result that these new subjects of the Empire have begun to appreciate how good the change has been for them. I was appointed to Chosen in August, 1919, when re-organization of the government machinery was effected, and, in obedience to the Imperial wishes expressed at the time, laid down a platform, the main points of which consisted in maintenance of law and order, deference to popular will, security of living, promotion of culture, etc. I have since devoted my whole energy toward realization of this policy and have been fortunate enough to see the peninsula begin another chapter of improvement in all important lines of human activity—education, sanitation, industry, traffic, and finance. As a matter of fact, if we compare these days with those previous to annexation what a change do we not see? Administration of Chosen, nevertheless, is a long continuing task, and the progress so far experienced is nothing more than a beginning, though it means a good beginning. Completion of the great work requires more time and labour, and we are bound by duty to redouble our efforts for attainment of our great goal. I sincerely hope that government and people will continue to co-operate in overcoming every difficulty in the way and will finally place this country on a par with the most civilized countries of the world, so that its eighteen million inhabitants may for ever enjoy the full bliss of an enlightened rule. This is the hope I desire all in the country may share with me on this felicitous commemoration day.



## **Governor-General's Opening Speech at the Chosen Exposition in Commemoration of the Twentieth Anniversary of the New Administration**

(October 1, 1929)

On this auspicious occasion, we are assembled to open this Chosen Exposition with formal ceremony.

And here we must first acknowledge our profound and humble gratitude for the Imperial Solicitude in graciously sending to us His Royal Highness, the Prince Kan-in, to be present at this function to-day. It is also a great honour to have such a large number of distinguished guests, including so many foreigners, who have been so kind as to give us the pleasure of participating in this ceremony.

Our aim in this Exposition is to give our visitors a general idea of the present conditions of the country, to spread out before them a panoramic view of the Chosen of to-day. The results of the twenty years' administration of the new regime can here be clearly seen, while, at the same time, we shall be helped to envisage the possibilities of future advance and development.

Certain foreign exhibits will be found here and they will serve for purposes of comparison with our own products.

We may express the hope that as large numbers as possible, in every rank of society, will visit this Exposition, so that all may increase their knowledge of Chosen and all may gain a better understanding of the situation as it is in the country to-day. This increased knowledge and understanding will, without doubt, advance our common interest in the improvement of the Peninsula, as well as the prosperity of the Empire as a whole.

The preparations for this Exposition were completed by September 12th, when it was opened to the public. To plan and arrange such an enterprise is no easy task, but, by the untiring efforts of the officials in charge and by the earnest support of various organisations and individuals of every class, we have now before us this magnificent Exposition, on a scale which has not hitherto been seen in Chosen. Here we may see the results of the beneficent rule of our August Emperor, and the results of the harmonious cooperation of the Government and people toward the betterment of this Peninsula. Here we have clear evidence of our success in working out the great principles set forth at the time of amalgamation.

On our part, we, who have to do with the administration of the country, will spare no efforts to further its cultural and economic progress, for only in this way can the intentions of this Exposition be realised, and only in this way the true welfare of the people be attained, that all may share in the blessings which His Imperial Majesty bestows on us, His people.

Below are given the names of the successive Governors-General and Vice Governors-General with their tenure of office :

Governor-General	Vice Governor-General
Count M. Terauchi (Oct., 1910-Oct., 1916)	Mr. I. Yamagata (Oct., 1910-Aug., 1919)
Count Y. Hasegawa (Oct., 1916-Aug., 1916)	Dr. R. Midzuno (Aug., 1919-June, 1922)
Viscount M. Saito (Aug., 1919-Dec., 1927)	Mr. C. Ariyoshi (June, 1922-July, 1924)
General I. Ugaki (Acting Gov.-Gen.) (Apr., 1927-Oct., 1927)	Mr. C. Shimooka (July, 1924-Nov., 1925)
General H. Yamanashi (Dec., 1927-Aug., 1929)	Mr. K. Yuasa (Dec., 1926-Dec., 1927)
Viscount M. Saito (Aug., 1929-April 1931)	Mr. S. Ikegami (Dec., 1927-April, 1929)
"	Count I. Kodama (June, 1929-April 1931)
General I. Ugaki (July 1931- )	Mr. K. Imaida (July 1931-

## Weights, Measures & Moneys with English & French Equivalents

JAPANESE	ENGLISH	FRENCH
<i>Ri</i> = 2,160 <i>Ken</i> ... ..	2.44 Miles ... ..	3.92 Kilomètres
Square <i>Ri</i> ... ..	5.95 Square Miles ... ..	15.42 Kilometres
<i>Chobu</i> = 3,000 <i>Tsubo</i> ... ..	2.45 Acres ... ..	99.17 Ares
<i>Tsubo</i> = 6 <i>Shaku</i> Square ... ..	3.95 Square Yards ... ..	3.30 Metres Carrés
<i>Koku</i> (Dry) ... ..	4.9629 Bushels ... ..	1/10 de Tonne
„ (Liquid) ... ..	39.7033 Gallons ... ..	1.80 Hectolitres
<i>Kwan</i> = 1,000 <i>Mommé</i> ... ..	{ 8.26733 lbs (Avoir) 10.04711 lbs (Troy) } ... ..	3.75 Kilogrammes
<i>Kin</i> = 160 <i>Mommé</i> ... ..	{ 1.32277 lbs (Avoir) 1.60754 lbs (Troy) } ... ..	6.00 Hectogrmmes
<i>Mommé</i> ... ..	{ 0.13228 oz. (Avoir) 0.12057 oz. (Troy) } ... ..	3.75 Grammes
<i>Shaku</i> ... ..	0.994 Foot ... ..	0.30 Metres
<i>Ken</i> = 6 <i>Shaku</i> ... ..	5.96 Foot ... ..	—
<i>Yen</i> = 100 <i>Sen</i> ... ..	2s. od.. 583 (Am.doll. 0.49346)	2.58 Francs



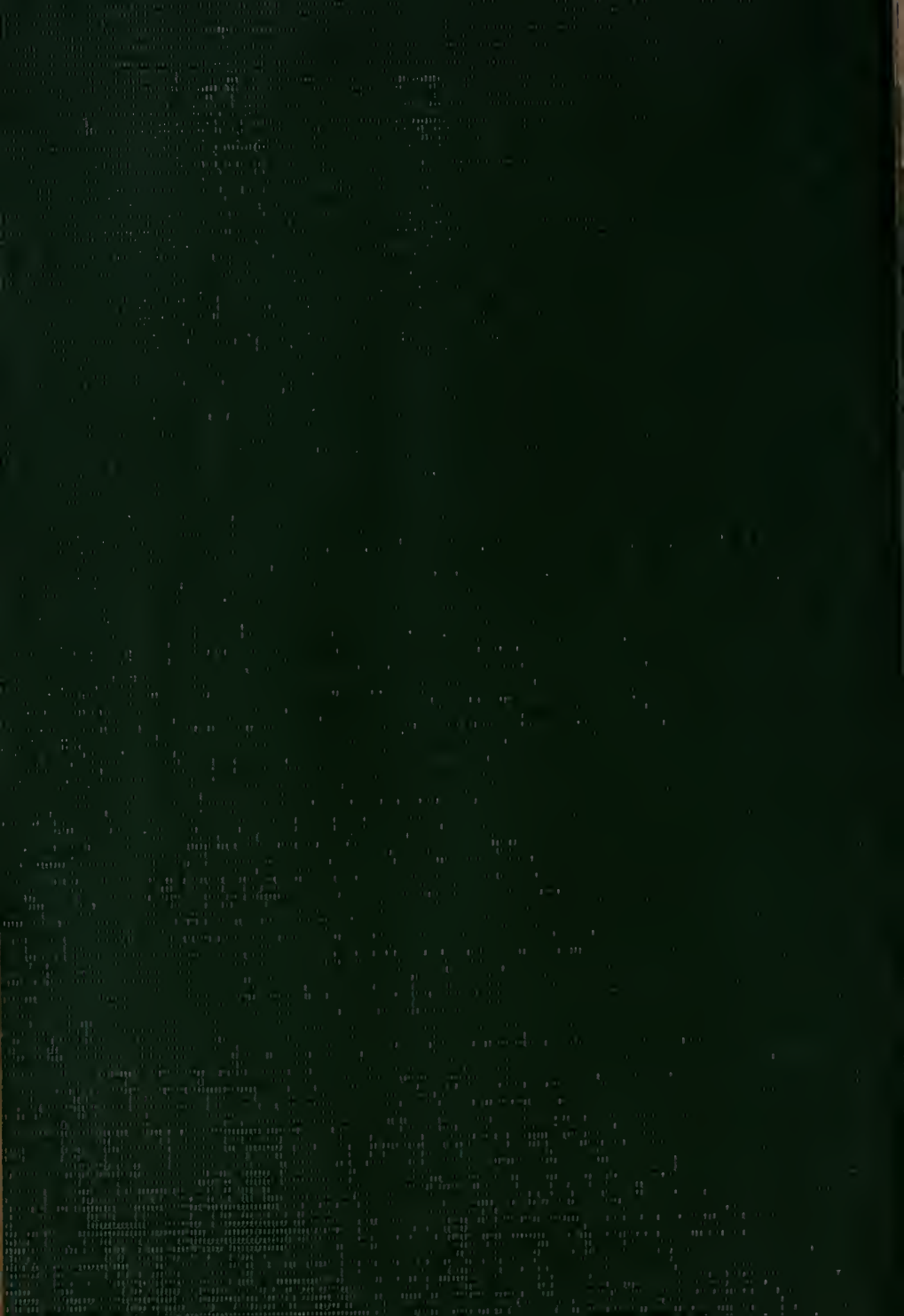
# SKETCH MAP OF CHOSEN

RAILWAY CONNECTION BETWEEN JAPAN & CHINA



EXPLANATIONS	
	GOVERNMENT RAILWAY OPENED TO TRAFFIC
	GOVERNMENT RAILWAY UNDER CONSTRUCTION
	PRIVATE RAILWAY OPENED TO TRAFFIC
	PRIVATE RAILWAY UNDER CONSTRUCTION

NOTICE:—The areas marked in the map denote strategic zones where photographing, copying, sketching, surveying, or flying is strictly forbidden unless special permission is obtained.



# The Korean Situation

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Authentic Accounts of Recent Events  
by Eye Witnesses

*PRICE 25 CENTS*

Issued by  
The Commission on Relations with the Orient  
of the  
Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America

105 East Twenty-second Street  
New York City





# FOREWORD

## IMPORTANT CABLE MESSAGES

Just as this pamphlet was about to go to press the following cable message was received from Hon. T. Hara, Premier of the Japanese Cabinet:

"I desire to assure you that the report of abuses committed by agents of the Japanese Government in Korea has been engaging my most serious attention. I am fully prepared to look squarely at actual facts. As I have declared on various occasions, the regime of administration inaugurated in Korea at the time of the annexation, nearly ten years ago, calls for substantial modification to meet the altered conditions of things. Ever since the formation of the present Cabinet in September last, I have been occupied in working out the scheme of needed administrative reforms in Korea. A comprehensive plan of reorganization with this object in view has already been on the tapis. For obvious reasons it has not been possible to proceed at once to its formal adoption in the presence of the disturbances which have unfortunately broken out in various parts of the peninsula.

"In view, however, of the recent improvement in the situation, the contemplated reform can now be, in my estimation, safely introduced, and will be carried into effect as soon as the legal requirements of procedure to make them definitive shall have been completed. Announcement of the plan in a more complete form shall be withheld for the present, but I trust that the fixed determination with which my colleagues and I have been endeavoring to promote the lasting welfare of our Korean kinsmen, and to insure a distinct betterment of conditions in the country will not be misunderstood or misconstrued."

The foregoing cablegram was received July 10th and came in answer to a cable sent him June 26, 1919, by the Commission on Relations with the Orient, as follows:

"Agitation regarding Chosen abuses increasingly serious, endangering goodwill. Cannot withhold facts.

Blanche Stevens,  
Am. teacher & girls  
academy at  
Ayeo chun - near  
Kang Kei.

Atrocities have been committed since  
this was sent - as shown by letters of

This cable was sent, for it was no longer derivable -  
the atrocities. Characteristically Japanese in making  
it to Korea. More the one way - Uchida in Cus. opinion

*Tried to suppress facts, but overwhelming public opinion brought pressure to bear*

↓  
Urgently important you publish official statements that abuses have ceased and reasonable administrative reforms proceeding. Can you cable to this effect? Address Fedcil—Commission Relations Orient, Federal Council Churches.”

At an earlier date, namely April 20, a cablegram regarding the Korean situation had been sent by Consul General Yada to Viscount Uchida, Minister of Foreign Affairs in Tokyo. In reply to that cablegram the following message was received by Mr. Yada and handed to this Commission on May 15, 1919:

\* \* \* \* \*

“Premier Hara has for some time past been most deeply concerned in regard to the introduction of reforms into the governmental administration of Chosen. He is now in the midst of special investigations as to the best methods for the realization of these reforms, which might be seriously interfered with and made more difficult were the press of foreign countries rashly at this time to incite additional excitement.

“Therefore you are instructed to explain the situation as above stated to the members of the Federal Council Commission, conveying to them at the same time the appreciation on my part of their cordial and friendly spirit which has prompted them to take action in this present trouble. It is also the desire of the Premier that you should call their attention more especially to the gravity of the whole affair if it is not handled in a proper way, and ask for the continuance of their sane and moderate attitude.”

\* \* \* \* \*

These cable messages indicate the earnestness with which this Commission, the Consul General Yada and the Premier of Japan himself have been acting in response to the appeals that have come from Korea.

There is every reason to believe that Premier Hara and his colleagues will exert their fullest power to rectify the wrongs and inaugurate a new era in Korea.

WM. I. HAVEN, Chairman,  
SIDNEY L. GULICK, Secretary.

*Manchester Guardian's opinion on Uchida - Cur. Opinion, Sept. 1919*

*Pressure by Fed. Council*

# THE JAPAN-KOREAN SITUATION

Early in March telegraphic news from Shanghai and Tientsin began to tell of a remarkable uprising for independence in Korea, which, it was alleged, the Japanese Government was suppressing with great brutality. In April letters began to arrive verifying the telegraphic news, and giving considerable detail. These letters and reports came through many indirect channels in order to escape a rigid censorship and were addressed to the Secretaries of Foreign Mission Boards having missions in Korea. Copies of letters from missionaries to friends and kindred in America were also forwarded by them to these board secretaries.

All appealed for some action in America that would save the Koreans from the brutal and inhuman treatment to which they were being ruthlessly subjected.

About the middle of April the first person who came direct from Korea, bringing personal knowledge of the situation, and arriving in New York, was Rev. A. E. Armstrong, Secretary of the Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church of Canada. He had spent ten months in the Far East, visiting the stations of his board in China, Manchuria, Korea and Japan, and was on the point of sailing from Yokohama for America when he received a wire urging an immediate revisit to Korea. He reached Seoul March 16, was there for three days in consultation with various parties, getting full and accurate information.

On reaching New York he at once consulted Dr. Arthur J. Brown, Secretary of the Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church of the United States, Dr. Frank Mason North, Secretary of the Board of Foreign Missions of the Methodist Episcopal Church of the United States, and Dr. William I. Haven, Secretary of the American Bible Society. The subject matter to be dealt with was of such a nature that they thought it could best be handled by the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America rather than by the Mission Boards.

A meeting was therefore called of the Commission on Relations with the Orient of the Federal Council of Churches on April 16th. Since that date the Commission has held a dozen

meetings in connection with this question, not only to study it, but also to take such action as might seem wise. To two of the meetings a group of important Japanese in New York City were invited. Urgent and full cablegrams were promptly sent to Japan by some of these Japanese friends.

The Commission sought by these quiet and friendly methods to exert influences that would secure real results. It deemed it only fair and just to take up the matter first with the Japanese before giving to the daily press the rapidly accumulating material from Korea. This has been done. The Commission now feels that the time has come when the full and accurate information in its possession should be made available for the public.

The documents printed in the following pages the Commission believes to be thoroughly reliable. More than thirty American and British individuals in Korea have shared in their preparation. Some of the documents are carefully prepared reports by committees; some are personal letters; some are signed affidavits of eyewitnesses. If all the material in hand were published a volume of about 1,000 pages would result.

One of the reports covers 114 closely packed pages. In these days of excitement and political turmoil in many lands we must accept with caution extreme statements that are not capable of proof. Many exaggerations have been circulated. The facts described in the following pages speak for themselves.

The Commission gives this material to the public for two principal reasons. First, because it wishes that every possible influence may be brought to bear for the protection of Koreans from inhuman treatment and injustice. Second, because there is need of a sound and enlightened public opinion here in America, a public opinion that will strengthen the progressive, anti-militaristic forces in Japan in their efforts to secure justice and fair dealing in Korea.

The Commission wishes to state with utmost clearness that as a Commission it is not concerning itself with the political questions involved in the Korean Independence Movement. Whether or not Korea should be granted political independence is not a question upon which it is called to express judgment. The Commission is, however, concerned with all right-minded men that brutality, torture, inhuman treatment, religious persecu-



tion, and massacres shall cease everywhere. The evidence of the wide prevalence of such deeds in Korea has become convincing.

In dealing with this situation, there is need of an accurately informed and just public opinion, able in its criticism of Japan to discriminate between the reactionary and militaristic forces on the one hand and those that are liberal and progressive on the other hand. Wholesome and fair criticism will recognize the disaster that has come upon the whole world through the spirit and practice of militarism. Japan, too, has been caught in its meshes. But in Japan, too, as in other lands, there is a liberal anti-militaristic movement, led by humane and progressive men who, we believe, share the distress of mind which their friends in America feel over what is being done in Korea.

The present Cabinet, having as Premier the first "Commoner" who has risen to that high post of responsibility, though liberal itself, is the heir of the disastrous militaristic policies and methods of preceding cabinets. There is good ground for belief that even before the uprising it was earnestly grappling with the problem of administrative reform in Korea. The turmoil has halted its program. Its political foes, moreover, bureaucratic and militaristic, are many and strong and are watching for any opportunity for causing the downfall of the cabinet

Americans should give the strongest possible moral support to the progressive and anti-militaristic movements in that land. This we can do, especially in this instance, as just indicated above, not by wholesale condemnation of the Japanese Government and people, but by distinguishing between the reactionary, autocratic forces that have too largely dominated her policies and leaders in the past and the new liberal policies and leaders that are now coming to the fore. Hope for Korea, and indeed for China and the whole world lies in the overthrow of militarism in Japan, as in every land, and in the firm establishment of civil liberty and popular rights for every section of the population.

WILLIAM I. HAVEN, Chairman,  
SIDNEY L. GULICK, Secretary,

Commission on Relations with the Orient of the Federal Council  
of the Churches of Christ in America.



## Exhibit I

### THE DISTURBANCES IN KOREA

By.....

March 21, 1919.

Korea at the present time would be a fertile field for another Bryce investigating commission. Because the stirrings of the present age have reached Korea and have roused her people to demand freedom, the Japanese military system has since the first of March exhibited all the characteristics of the Prussian machine which was recently smashed in Europe. Many of the atrocities perpetrated in Belgium have been duplicated in Korea. According to one newspaper six thousand Koreans are now in jails and prisons, and this is probably below the actual number. The movement for more freedom is country-wide; its propagandists include Christians, members of the reformed native cult, the Chuntokyo, and Buddhists. Students of government schools are equally involved with those of Mission schools. And in the name of "law and order" countless offenses against humanity are daily being committed.

#### The Japanese Colonial System

Japan established a protectorate over Korea in 1908, and in 1910 formally annexed the country. Prior to the annexation the administrative system was chaotic. By stern enforcement the Japanese have introduced quiet and order, have commenced to exploit the natural resources of the country, set up a judiciary, developed the beginning of an educational system, improved communications, and cultivated hygiene. There is no denying the fact that many reforms have been brought about under Japanese auspices. But the methods employed in governing Korea have not won the hearts of the people. The genius of the Japanese people is attracted by systems which are autocratic. Their police system is German to the core; and in their colonial government they have taken the Prussian rather than the British method as their model. The sword is the emblem of authority. Not only is it carried by the military, gendarmerie and police, but by the civilian members of the civil service. Every male school

teacher wears a sword; in fact, almost every one who holds a government office carries a sword as the symbol of his authority. To bolster up the militaristic system a vast system of espionage exists. Consequently there is no freedom of assembly, no free speech, no freedom of the press. And there is no right of petition of grievances with immunity from arrest. Needless to say, there is no participation in self-government. In the law courts it is alleged that a Korean has no chance in a suit with a Japanese. Habeas corpus is unknown. The state has a right to keep a prisoner for two weeks or more before producing him in open court, and if it desires by means of securing extensions of ten days *ad lib.* need not produce a prisoner in practice until it desires to do so. The prisoner is not allowed to consult a lawyer or to see his friends. Torture is freely applied, and a man is considered guilty until proved innocent. Neither is the Korean permitted to enjoy many offices of emolument under the government. There are some Korean police and gendarmes, but there are very few Koreans in other departments of the civil service. Korea is a paradise for the Japanese job-hunter. Efforts have been made by government officials to deprave the youth of Korea. Commercialized prostitution is flourishing and is extending from the capital to the country parts. A manifesto describing the grievances of the people has been issued by the independence committee. Another grievance which strikes deeply to the heart of the Korean is the determination of the Japanese to drive out the use of the Korean language from the schools. The proclamation which provides that Japanese is to be the sole language of instruction comes into force in 1920. The lesson of Poland and other countries seems to be lost upon the Japanese. Then there seems to be an organized attempt to deprive the Koreans in the southern part of Korea—which is the warmer portion—of their land and to force them to emigrate to Manchuria. Pressure is put upon the Korean landholder or tenant to sell, usually at a disadvantageous price, and he and his family go North to make a new home. Japanese settlers replace the Korean. This policy is fostered by a semi-official company called the Oriental Development Company, which receives valuable concessions from the government. A veteran missionary summed up the situation trenchantly the other day in these words: "This that builds

railways, constructs roads, promotes education, understands hygiene, is none the less German."

### **Japanese Reform Tendencies**

In a word, the whole system of government throughout the Japanese Empire reflects the German system in this—that the civil arm of the government is dominated by the military. Last September, the bureaucratic ministry of Count Terauchi fell, and was succeeded by that of Mr. Hara. The new ministry was acclaimed by the Japanese press as the first democratic government that Japan has had, and from its acts it would seem to deserve the title. Shortly after the Diet opened, one of the new ministers replied to a question enquiring what would be the colonial policy of the new ministry, that the government realized that they could not continue to rule the colonies by Imperial ordinances, but that new methods were under consideration. The minister could not say when they would go into effect. Later press references seemed to reveal an inner struggle in the government, the civil element apparently wishing to replace the military government of Korea by a civilian administration, and the militarists opposing any such transformation. At the present moment the militarist element is vociferating in the daily press that it is impossible for Japan to ratify the action of its delegates at the Peace Conference in regard to the abolition of conscription. This by the way: On March 1st, a monster popular demonstration took place in Tokyo, demanding manhood suffrage; and the Hara ministry a few days later introduced an electoral reform bill which has passed the popular house, greatly extending the franchise. It would appear therefore that democracy is slowly gaining in the heart of the Empire, and that there were hopes for a brighter day for the colonies from that end.

### **The Genesis of the Korean Independence Movement**

Meanwhile a series of happenings combined to precipitate a crisis in Korea. The first of these was the Peace Conference and the dissemination of the doctrine of self-determination of races. The following story was told to a representative group of missionaries by the Minister of Internal Affairs of the

Government General of Chosen. He stated that the government had information that a Korean had interviewed President Wilson before he had left for Paris, and asked the President if he would bring up the question of Korea at the Conference. The President replied, it is alleged, that the Conference could only deal with countries which were affected by the war, and that the question of a country at peace as Korea was could not be properly raised. The interviewer then asked whether if it could be unmistakably shown that the Koreans were dissatisfied would the case of Korea then be discussed at the Peace Conference? To which the President is reported to have said that in that case he would not say that it could not be. According to information from other sources it seems that this is quite a likely story. There are many Koreans in the Western States, in Hawaii, Siberia and China, and throughout all the centres of Korean population the movement for independence rapidly spread.

The proceedings of the Peace Conference formed another link in the chain of events. The League of Nations, the Gospel of the right of small nations to self-determination, the reviving of oppressed nations set free by the war, all fired the imagination of the educated Koreans.

Then an event nearer home occurred to bring out national feeling. On January 20th the ex-Emperor of Korea died just on the eve of the marriage of his son to a Japanese princess. It was officially reported that the ex-Emperor's death was due to apoplexy. But rumors got into circulation that his death was due either to suicide or poisoning. It was claimed that he had refused to sign a paper which stated that the Koreans were contented under Japanese rule and was made away with because he had refused to do so. It has been officially denied that any such paper was ever presented to the ex-ruler. The news of the ex-Emperor's death was suppressed for a time.

Arrangements were made for the funeral. The Diet at Tokyo adjourned out of respect, after voting 100,000 yen towards the funeral expenses. The consort of the ex-Emperor who had been assassinated in 1894 was buried not far out of the East Gate of Seoul. It had been decided that the king should be buried about seventeen miles from the city, and in accordance with Korean custom it was necessary to bury the queen by his side. Consequently the body of the queen was

disinterred, and on February 12th the reburial ceremonies were begun and carried through with great pomp, all of the expenses being borne by the Koreans.

These events brought back to the Koreans in a poignant way the remembrance of their national humiliation. March 3rd was set for the date of the ex-Emperor's funeral, and it had been arranged that the ceremonies inside the city should be Japanese and outside the city Korean. Needless to say, the arrangements for the Japanese part of the ceremony were not made with the hearty concurrence of the Koreans.

### Demonstrations Begin

The atmosphere was becoming tense. Evidently the authorities had an inkling that something was brewing, for the principals of schools were called before the Prefect at the City Hall, and told to warn their students not to be led away by the actions of the Korean students in Japan. It should be stated here that during February the Korean students who were attending the various colleges in Japan had started a movement for the self-determination of Korea, and many had been imprisoned.

On Saturday, March 1st, notices were posted on the streets of Seoul that public gatherings would be held at Pagoda Park, and printed proclamations of independence signed by thirty-three men were distributed. Shortly after noon a large number of the signers of this manifesto met at a Korean hotel and telephoned to the authorities that they had declared the independence of the country, announcing where they were. The authorities thereupon sent and arrested them. The police published in the newspapers that they had surrounded the ring-leaders in an eating house as they were drinking success to their plot.

Meanwhile the people, including many students, had gathered at the park, and from there started to parade some of the principal streets. They walked along in an orderly way, with hands held aloft, calling their national cry of "Mansei," which means "ten thousand years." In front of public buildings such as police headquarters and the various Consulates they would stop and take off their hats and wave them, uttering their cry of "Mansei." At the Consulates they sent in letters and their proclamation manifesto. No single act of violence was done. At



one point mounted gendarmes charged the crowd and inflicted some sabre cuts. The police were arresting as many as they could, and all that evening and on the following day, Sunday, men were being arrested at their homes on suspicion of having been connected with the demonstration. Of the thirty-three signers fifteen were members of the native cult, the Chuntokyo; fifteen were Christians and three were Buddhists. Of the Christians the majority were ministers of the various city churches, many of them college trained men; one was a Y. M. C. A. secretary, another was connected with the Severance Hospital. Since that day arrests have been made daily, until at present there is scarcely a city church which has not its minister locked up.

On Sunday, March 2nd, no demonstrations occurred in Seoul. The following day was the day of the ex-king's funeral. The schools had been allocated definite places along the line of march for the Japanese ceremonies. Not one of the higher schools, government, private or mission, was represented by any but the members of the faculties. The students cut the ceremony dead. The funeral was a military spectacle. The first section, which consisted of naval and military detachments, took eighteen minutes to pass a given point. The second section, which took in the Shinto priests, the bier, and the governmental representatives and functionaries, was not so large, and the third section was a line of troops and sailors almost as long as the first. The following day was quiet in Seoul, the Korean ceremonies taking place outside the city. These two days were school holidays.

The next day, March 5th, not a single student in the higher schools was in his place, and rumors began to come to the heads of schools that there would be no more students until the country had secured its independence. Since that time, nearly a month ago, not a higher school has been able to open.

On Wednesday, March 5th, at the stroke of nine in the morning, commotion was heard on the main street in front of the railway station. Young men were swarming out of the stores and alleys and making toward the railway station, calling out their national cry. In a remarkably brief time, a man in a ricksha started up the street toward the South Gate, surrounded by the throng, who with uplifted arms, carrying red bands, ran through the gate and into the old city toward the palace. This demonstration was composed almost entirely of



students, and as it proceeded was joined by high school girls. The police apparently had been taken by surprise, for the demonstrators had run about half a mile before they were opposed. In the large open space in front of the palace, the police were drawn up and charged the crowd with sabres. Many wounds were inflicted. No respect was shown to sex, girls being handled roughly and beaten. Hundreds of arrests were made, including a number of the school girls. No violence was attempted by the students. Their object apparently was merely to demonstrate, and they considered it an honor to be arrested for their country. Nearly all of the student nurses at Severance Hospital rushed out when the crowd passed by the street. They were carrying bandages and were prepared to do Red Cross work if required. Fifteen were arrested and were held in the police station until afternoon. They were questioned closely as to whether the heads of their institutions (the missionaries) had ordered them out. The younger high school girls who were taken did not fare so well. Most were kept in custody, and more will be told of their sufferings in the jails later.

Various other demonstrations occurred. The street railway employees struck for several days as a protest. The Korean shopkeepers put up their shutters, and have kept their stores closed for over three weeks. The literati prepared a petition sending it to the office of the Governor General by the hands of a Christian preacher and a non-Christian. At the office of the Governor they were told that such documents should be received at the police department. To the police they accordingly went, and were immediately arrested. It should be noted that the independence manifesto and the petition of the literati are both couched in stately phraseology and breathe a spirit of charity toward those who have inflicted on the Korean nation a mental "reign of terror." (Later another petition was prepared by men who had been ennobled by the Japanese after the annexation, one of these men being the man who in 1866 had petitioned the Korean ruler to conclude a treaty with Japan and open Korea to the West. This man being over eighty years of age and too weak to rise from his bed was not arrested, but all his male relatives were taken into custody and a cordon of soldiers posted about his house. The other was immediately arrested. Both are viscounts.)

## Demonstrations Outside the Capital

Synchronizing with the outbreaks at Seoul, demonstrations of a similar nature occurred at the leading centers throughout the country. Again, they were orderly. But the minions of the law at the outside centers, where there were fewer foreign eyes to see what took place, behaved in many places with the utmost ferocity. The crowds were fired on and deaths occurred. Two cases of gunshot wounds were sent in from a point in the North to Severance Hospital. At Pyengyang, a large center, foreign observers report that the crowds were attacked by the members of the fire brigade who were armed with their hooks which are used to pull the burning thatch off the houses. Many ugly wounds were inflicted. Five men died in a hospital from gunshot wounds, but the authorities are reported to have issued orders that the deaths must not be reported as due to that cause. In the North the authorities seem to have decided to penalize the Christian population, and churches have been wantonly destroyed. In many cases the police have questioned demonstrators and have arrested only those who admitted being Christians. An attempt was made to get twenty-four wealthy Koreans to sign a statement which said that the thirty-three signers were low-class people. They refused to do so, and pressure was brought to bear on them for several days before the attempt was given up. It should be said here, to make this point clear, that wealthy men are compelled to submit to periodical police audits of their private finances. There is no halfway government in Korea.

In Hamheung, a point on the East Coast, where the Canadian Presbyterians have a Mission Station, scenes similar to those at Pyengyang were enacted. The fire brigade and coolies armed with clubs perpetrated outrages on the people. An eye-witness statement by Rev. — is in our possession. Here the authorities refused to let those injured be treated in the Mission Hospital. Mr. — had occasion to go to the police station during the demonstrations and saw in a tent the fire brigade, with their hooked poles in hand, and coolies armed with clubs, waiting for the signal to leave the police compound to attack the crowd. The conclusion is irresistible that these men were under the orders of the police. An attempt was made

by the chief of police to intimidate the foreigners by saying that their lives were in danger from the non-Christians, but refused to be bluffed, and told the chief that he would be held responsible for any harm that befell the foreigners.

It is not possible at this time to record in detail all of the uprisings in various places. These are fair samples of what occurred throughout the country. The truth will eventually come out as to what has happened in places where no foreigners were present to record what has transpired.

In the official press reports, particularly those which came out in the early stages, the missionaries were openly accused as being the instigators of the movement, and capital was made out of the fact that so many Christians were concerned in it. Every effort was made to minimize the part played by other sections of the population. The police reporters played up the Christian schools and glossed over the facts in regard to the participation of the government school students and the Buddhists. At the demand of the American Consul, official statements have since appeared that the government discredits the stories of missionary instigation, but the police reports and vernacular press still continue to print them.

### Police Atrocities

Beating and torture are the cardinal principles of police methods in Korea. When making arrests, usually the victim is cuffed and kicked by several policemen. In the demonstration of March 5th, a student noticed that the girl he was engaged to was being attacked by several policemen. He went to her rescue, and was at once set upon by several policemen and severely beaten. He was arrested and has not yet been released, having now been in custody about three weeks. Instances are not infrequent where Japanese in civilian clothes have arrested demonstrators in the presence of the police and have treated them shamefully. Stories of this kind come from Pyengyang and other points as well as Seoul.

From released prisoners stories of cruelty and torture are now pouring out. One student was asked to tell who the leaders were, and his finger nails were pushed back from the skin to assist his memory. Still another prisoner had his finger tips

burned for the same purpose. Still another was put in an upright press, which operated with a screw from the back. When the screw is turned, the four sides contract, and while the pressure becomes stronger, the questioning is carried on—a way of squeezing out information. After being subjected to this torture, the same man had a strong cord tied around the middle finger of his right hand; the cord was then passed through a hook in the ceiling, and his body was pulled up until he was resting on the tips of his toes. He became insensible during the process, and when he awoke found himself lying down while a salve was being applied to his wounds. He left the jail with a swollen hand, which had to be lanced immediately.

The girls fared even worse. For the first few days after being arrested they were confined in the several police stations. As far as can be ascertained, no matrons were on duty in those jails. Of course, the girls were not allowed to communicate with relatives or friends. The main facts in the story of one released girl are as follows: A few hours after being arrested she was brought before an officer, questioned and beaten by him on the face, shoulders and legs. The following day the same process was repeated before a second officer. The third day she was taken before a third officer, who called her by vile names, and insinuated that she and the other girl prisoners were pregnant. "You can cut us open and see," she retorted. He then said that the Bible taught that sinless people were naked (some coarse references to Adam and Eve being intended) and ordered her to disrobe. She cried, and he did not press his demand. She was again beaten, and the fourth day before still another officer she was questioned and beaten again. One of her ordeals was to kneel down on the floor and hold a heavy board at arms' length for an hour. If her arm trembled she was beaten again. The girls were always accompanied to the toilet under guard. On the fifth day she was removed to the West Gate prison. She and two other girls were summoned to an officer's desk. She was told to wait outside while her two companions went in. A little later she saw them pass out stark naked, with hair down their backs, holding their clothes in a bundle before them. She was then called in and found two Japanese matrons present with the officer. After being questioned by the officer, she was ordered by the matrons to take

off her clothes. After resisting for a time, and being threatened, she did so. Her hair had first been taken down by the matrons. There was no apparent purpose in this request except to humiliate her. After standing several minutes disrobed, she was told to follow one of the matrons. She wrapped her skirt around her, and carrying the rest of her clothes, walked through the hall to a cell, where she found two other girls. On the way thither she passed several male employees of the prison. The following day she was taken out by a matron and taken to a room where a very youthful Japanese doctor was waiting. Again she was ordered to disrobe for a physical examination.

After a long altercation she was allowed to retain one garment. The doctor tapped her chest, asked no questions whatever about her health, and she was in due course taken back to her cell. Several days later a gold-braided official came into her cell, asked her to remove her waist, examined her back and chest, and left the cell. Shortly after this she and a few other girls were released. They were handed over to relatives or school principals who had been notified to be in attendance. They were constantly guarded by matrons while in the cells, were not allowed to talk, had to remain in a very irksome squatting position all day, and were beaten if they changed their position. They were allowed fifteen minutes open-air walking daily after breakfast.

When stories of torture and cruelty to prisoners became current among the missionary community, the Seoul Press ran a couple of editorial articles pointing out that the Koreans were "atrocious liars" and that the stories of cruelties had been investigated and that the prison authorities assured them that no tortures were taking place. When a missionary showed this article to a Japanese, he naïvely replied that it was intended to mean that there had been no tortures since they had been sent to a certain prison. Another foreigner discussed the editorial with the editor of the paper, who replied that he knew there were cruelties, but that in making that statement he was "speaking officially."

### Indignities to Missionaries

The mission body has not escaped uninjured. At Pyengyang, two ladies were prodded with rifle butts as they walked along



the street. Two male missionaries were arrested there while trying to protect by their presence only a body of native women whom the police were trying to arrest. After being marched through the streets guarded by soldiers after a stay of a few minutes in the police station, they were released. One of these men was the Rev. Stacy L. Roberts and the other the Rev. E. W. Thwing of Peking, whose work in anti-opium movements has made him an international figure. In Southern Korea two lady members of the Australian Presbyterian Mission were arrested and subsequently released. On March 20th the Rev. John Thomas, a missionary of the Oriental Missionary Society, was attacked by soldiers at Kokei, and severely beaten. When he produced his British passport, it was thrown on the ground and stamped on, as was also a preaching permit which had been given him by the authorities. All of these cases involved consular action, which was promptly taken. At Syenchun the homes of the missionaries were searched shortly after the demonstrations began. On March 17th, a body of police, led by a procurator, came to the Severance Union Medical College, placed guards at all the gates and at intervals through the compound, and searched the various buildings of the institution. As already mentioned in connection with the Hamheung incidents, the authorities have tried to get rid of their responsibilities for the protection of foreigners. Rumor has it that a certain Consul was asked to warn his nationals to keep off the street as they could not guarantee to protect them, and the Consul is said to have replied that he would issue no such warning and would hold the authorities responsible in case any of his nationals were molested. Two or three days ago the leading newspaper in the capital in an inspired editorial invited the missionaries to confer with the authorities as to the best means of bringing the troubles to a close, and the suggestions of the missionary body have been invited by some representative Japanese. That is the status of the matter at this moment.

On Saturday, March 22nd, another street demonstration took place at Seoul. It was quickly headed off and a number of arrests made. On the following Sunday evening demonstrations broke out simultaneously in several different parts of the city. At the East Gate bayonets were freely used and many were wounded. There are persistent reports that a number



of deaths occurred. The city is being patrolled by soldiers and is virtually under martial law. It has been so since March 1st.

What the outcome will be it is too early to prophesy at this stage. Whether the Koreans will weaken in their stand for complete independence or pursue their policy of passive resistance until the end, or whether they will accept a program of fundamental reforms, cannot be foretold. The revelation of the organizing ability shown in the movement thus far is the surprise and admiration of all who know the Koreans: it is a veritable renaissance. There are many Japanese who realize that their methods of colonial administration have failed to achieve their end, and who are sincerely desirous of bringing about a happier condition. Japan's system has been wrong: it was a German colonial policy, not a British one; it has been an effort to exploit a people and benefit them at the same time. It has been an effort to impose "culture" against the desires of a people with a culture of its own. In the meantime, whatever the outcome, publicity will help both Korea and Japan in their ascent to a higher plane of civilization.

## **Exhibit II**

### **A GENERAL SURVEY OF SITUATION IN KOREA**

BY A COMMITTEE

April 7th 1919.

It may be well to give you a general résumé of the situation. For some time past the Japanese authorities had planned to marry the young Korean prince, called the Heir to Prince Yi, to a Japanese princess, the marriage to be a symbol of the amalgamation of the two peoples. The date had been set for January 25th, and preparations made, when on January 22nd the father of the prince, the ex-Emperor, died under very peculiar circumstances. This of course postponed the marriage, and from that time on it was evident to all that the Koreans were becoming agitated in mind. Also the Peace Conference was deliberating in Paris and the principle of "self-determination of nations" evidently appealed to Koreans as applicable to their country. Koreans living outside of Korea, in China, Hawaii and America, had also been looking for some opportunity to accomplish something for the liberation of their country, and were evidently

in touch with leaders in Korea. How all these streams of influence acted upon each other we do not know precisely, but their interaction resulted in a demonstration which first broke out on March 1st, two days before the date set for the funeral of the ex-Emperor.

Thirty-three representative men from all parts of the country drew up and signed a declaration which they printed by the thousands. Fifteen of these men were leaders of the "Chun Do Kyo" (The Heavenly Way Association), which perpetuates the "Tonk Hak" and "Ill Chin Whei" movements, which were prominent in the years immediately preceding and during the Japanese occupation and annexation of Korea. Fifteen others were Christians, and included some of our most prominent pastors, such as Kil Sun Chu of Pyengyang and Yang Chun Paik of Syenchun. The other three were said to be Buddhists. The head of the Chun Do Kyo signed first and Pastor Kil second.

On March 1st these thirty-three men met in Seoul, sent one of their number to one of the parks of the city to read the declaration of independence to an assembled crowd of people, after which all the signers surrendered themselves to the police. On the same day and at the same hour similar demonstrations were held in seven or eight other cities of Korea. At these demonstrations it was stated that the participants, although Christians or members of the Chun Do Kyo or Buddhists, as the case might be, were acting wholly as individuals. It was further stated that the movement was to be one of passive resistance, no property was to be destroyed and no Japanese or others injured in any way. This character of the demonstration has been consistently maintained up to the present time except as qualified by statements below, police reports to the contrary notwithstanding. After the reading of the declaration of independence, Korean flags were given out to the demonstrators, who stood up, waving them and shouting "Hurrah (Mansay) for Korean independence!"

In Seoul thousands of people had gathered for the funeral of the late ex-Emperor, and on this day surged up the main streets in dense crowds, shouting for independence but otherwise conducting themselves in an orderly manner. In Pyengyang and other cities, also, as far as foreigners have witnessed the demonstrations, although thousands of people joined in the

demonstrations, no rioting occurred. The next day, Sunday, was quiet although Church services were forbidden in some cities; but on Monday the third similar demonstrations were held in many places but not in Seoul, because there the Koreans wished to have nothing mar the funeral ceremonies in honor of the ex-Emperor.

The movement was so secretly organized that neither the missionaries nor the secret police of the government knew what was going to happen, though all were conscious of the great tensity of the time. There is, moreover, a remarkably efficient organizing power apparently directing the movement. In a very few days it spread to all parts of the land, even to remote mountain valleys. The police, gendarmes and soldiers were everywhere called out to disperse the crowds and to arrest the leaders. The first day or so no very rough methods were used, but from then on, and especially out in the country districts the most brutal methods have been employed. Men, women and children have been repeatedly kicked, beaten with fists or gun butts, bayoneted, sabred and shot, until our Mission hospitals and, if report be true, the government and other private hospitals, too, are filled with the wounded; Severance Hospital having cots and beds in every available space, even the hallways. Testimony gathered from these wounded is consistent that until attacked the crowds of demonstrators used no force but simply shouted for independence, and were fired upon or otherwise attacked. In one place after the crowd was fired upon it attacked the gendarmes, killing four, and in several country towns gendarme stations are said to have been wrecked. In many instances the gendarmes and soldiers have made no attempt at arrests, but merely fired without warning, and have often fired indiscriminately in the direction from which cheering was heard. In addition to this, even women have been stripped of their clothing in the open and beaten severely. Soldiers, gendarmes and police have broken into houses, and not finding the men they wanted, have dragged women and even children around by the hair and beaten them. In one case at least fire was used to torture a man. These Hunnish barbarities have stirred us all to deepest indignation and have to a certain extent terrorized the people who were expecting merely arrest, yet they remain firm in their determination, although they are

changing their method of demonstration and protest for the purpose of saving life. For instance, in the cities of Seoul and Pyengyang especially they have closed their places of business and kept them closed for nearly a month now, and it is said that they are going to inaugurate boycotts and strikes along various lines and to refuse to pay taxes. It is obvious, however, that if the brutal methods of repression are continued, retaliation on the part of the Koreans will inevitably be the result, even though they have no weapon.

In the repression of these demonstrations the authorities have evidently decided that the Christian Church as a Church, and not merely Christians as individuals, is responsible, and in some places have arrested every officer of the local church, a course which, together with the general terrorization of the people, has prevented services being held during the month. This, however, is particularly true in South Pyengan Province.

Of course *our Mission schools* have been involved from the start. The students, both young men and women, giving their enthusiastic support to the movement. The natural result has been that with the exception of Ewa Haktang, which is making a rather unsuccessful effort to keep open, all Mission schools have been closed since March 1st. They have not been closed by the Government, which indeed is anxious to maintain the appearance of normal times and the fiction of tranquility in Korea, but their closure is due to the fact that many students and teachers are already under arrest, while the great majority refuse to study until the object of these demonstrations has been attained. This is a very serious condition and one which may result in the permanent closing of our schools, the government taking advantage of this opportunity to order them permanently closed, on the technical ground that they have not maintained the required continuous course of study. At least two schools have already been warned to this effect. If this should be the result, a very absurd injustice would be involved, inasmuch as the government schools are in much the same condition as ours, but are being kept "officially" open by the teachers meeting and going through the motions every day.

Although the foregoing might seem to indicate that the movement for independence is largely supported by Christians and followers of the *Chun Do Kyo*, it is far from being confined

to these two classes. It met immediate response from the people generally, and in some places, in fact, **Christians have not taken part** in it, although their non-Christian neighbors have. Neither is the movement local as an inspired press reports, but has spread to all parts of the country and among every class of the population. Furthermore, in the last two weeks the old literati and even the new nobility created since the Japanese annexation in recognition largely of their pro-Japanese services have sent in to the government petitions asking for independence and have been promptly arrested. In fact, one of these men is the man who in 1866 first petitioned the old Korean King to conclude a treaty with Japan and open the country to the West, a man who has always up to the present been pro-Japanese and was made a viscount by His Imperial Japanese Majesty. It is reported that such petitions will continue to be presented until even the government is forced to recognize that all classes of the people support the movement.

In regard to the part which has been taken by the Christians special emphasis should be laid upon a report which comes to us on the best authority to the effect that in the consultations which preceded this demonstration the members of the Chun Do Kyo stood for a declaration of independence and the use of force if necessary, while the Christian leaders maintained that they should petition for redress of abuses and wrongs and governmental reforms, but without the use of force. The compromise program finally adopted was to declare independence and to use no force. In a conference with government officials, to which we shall presently refer, it was admitted by a prominent official that all must recognize that the absence of the element of force in the demonstrations was due to the participation of the Christians.

One of the inevitable concomitants of this turmoil was the charge that missionaries are the instigators and abettors of the whole movement, a charge which bitter articles in the vernacular press violently supported. We enclose a copy of such an article taken from the second most prominent Japanese paper in the peninsula. The American Consul General at Seoul protested to the authorities against these articles, but although this particular one was afterwards officially "withdrawn," articles of a similar import have appeared in all parts of the country and of course



in Japan. It is only natural that a strong anti-foreign feeling should be aroused, especially directed toward Americans. You have doubtless heard ere now of the attack upon Rev. John Thomas\* of the Oriental Missionary Society who was set upon and severely beaten by police and soldiers under the belief that he was an American instigator of these demonstrations. There have been reports that Japanese were going to beat up some of the missionaries, and, as a matter of fact, Japanese thugs, armed with clubs and knives, have held a parade through the streets of Seoul headed by a mounted gendarme. These men have been brought in not merely to intimidate Koreans and to precipitate violent rioting but to take part in any underhand work that it may seem wise for the authorities to wink at in these disturbed days. So far as foreigners are concerned the Japanese officials told a newspaper correspondent that if he would carry a lighted cigarette at night he would be safe because no Japanese would then mistake him for a missionary. Mr. Holdcroft was stopped by two such men, armed with clubs, when on his way to the railway station at night and subjected to cross-questioning as to his nationality, occupation, destination, etc.

You have possibly seen references to reports published in the Chinese newspapers, notably the Peking-Tientsin Times, the North China Star and the China Press giving instances of brutality on the part of Japanese soldiers witnessed by missionaries in Pyongyang, Syenchun and elsewhere. Some of these were never intended for publication in any form and certainly not with names, dates and places embodied and involving missionaries in an apparently anti-Japanese propaganda. They were gathered from individuals by an indiscreet missionary from North China, not connected with our Board, who was in Korea for the first two weeks of the demonstration. Most of the material was intrusted to him with the understanding that it was to be transmitted to friends in America, but this individual published them verbatim as soon as he got over the border, and even insisted that they go in with names. We are just as indignant over this as anybody else and realize to what an extent our position has been compromised and to what extent also this will stimulate anti-missionary feeling, but of course it cannot be helped now and since the American Consul General is exerting

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\*A British subject.



pressure on Japanese authorities to prevent further attacks on Americans in the local press or by Japanese subjects we hope that none of the missionaries will encounter violence. For the most part we are remaining quietly at home, not even attempting country itineration, and not venturing out at night except in case of necessity. In regard to the reports mentioned above as having been published in the Chinese papers you should know, however, that though they were not intended to be published in this way and not to be used at all in China, they contain a reliable account of actual occurrences supported by affidavits now on file at the American Consulate General, Seoul.

The ultimate effect of this movement on the Church in Korea is wholly problematical. The leaders went into it with their eyes open, realizing that failure of their efforts meant persecution and probably severe repression of church activity, but they said they had prayed the matter through and felt that it was God's will for them to make this attempt to secure not merely civil but real religious liberty at this particular time in the world's history, when so many small peoples are apparently to secure these blessings. We learned this from the Moderator of the Korean General Assembly and others after the demonstrations began and before he and other leaders were arrested. It is reported that officials have stated that the Chun Do Kyo is to be suppressed entirely and that the Christian Church is to be reduced to about half its present size. Certainly if the military government remains in Korea and the present movement collapses the outlook for the future is very dark. If, on the other hand, in view of the obvious failure of the administration of the last nine years to conciliate the people, a civil administration and governmental reforms are introduced, while there probably would not be such an aggressive anti-Christian activity we must anticipate great restriction of Christian propaganda at best. It is quite evident that the most rigorous repression of demonstrations is directed against Christians in those sections of the country where the church is prominent. In the north a number (fifteen according to credible reports) of churches have had windows, furniture, bells and Bibles destroyed by soldiers, gendarmes or authorized thugs, and in many communities where general arrests are made discrimination is always against the Christians. Undoubtedly the government regards Christianity

as the chief factor of the disturbance, and, conceiving that its previous suspicions have been justified, is acting accordingly.

The effect of the movement on Mission work is equally problematical, for the government, while officially stating that they do not regard the missionaries as having any direct responsibility for this uprising, which took government and missionaries alike by surprise, seems to be making every effort in the examination of prisoners to fasten responsibility upon the missionary body. This we are repeatedly told by released prisoners, but the Koreans under examination uniformly insist that the missionaries are not connected with the movement. The examinations, it may be said in passing, are frequently conducted with all the approved methods of 1912 "Conspiracy Case." But the situation is none the less grave. Word has just come that Mr. Mowry of Pyengyang, has been arrested under charge of permitting the production of seditious literature on his premises. We can only surmise the underlying reason for his arrest. Copies of the independence proclamations and news-sheets which he has been translating may have been found in his house, or his secretary may have, without his knowledge, used his mimeograph for printing notices regarding local demonstrations. Anything else is inconceivable. Two Australian Missionary ladies were arrested and detained two days. They had gone out to call their school girls out of the demonstrations and were arrested on the charge that they were taking part. These instances indicate the critical character of the situation.

At least three informal conferences have been held with representative officials and civilians in Seoul. At the first Mr. Usami called in a group of missionaries (Doctors Gale, Avison, Hardy, Noble, Sharrocks, Mr. Bernheisel, Mr. Bunker, Mr. Gerdine and Mr. Hugh Miller) and asked their opinion as to the causes of the uprising. Very frank statements were made, notably one by Dr. Gale (who, after many years of consistent pro-Japanese effort is now plainly outspoken in condemnation of the failure of the military administration) who told Mr. Usami that the Koreans had been living under a reign of terror for the past nine years. The second and third conferences included such men as Judge Watanabe, Mr. Sekiya, Mr. Niwa, Mr. Yamagata of the Seoul Press, and some other civilians, and in addition to most of the above missionaries Dr. Moffett and Mr. Whitte-

more and Bishop Welch (and at the third conference Dr. Egbert Smith). The gist of the position of the Japanese was the plainly stated desire that missionaries should co-operate with the government in suppressing the uprising. Bishop Welch, by a previous agreement among the missionaries, replied, stating that anything other than absolute neutrality was impossible, for three reasons. First, it would be useless for us to try to stop the Movement. Secondly, it would be resented and destroy our influence; and finally it was forbidden by our home government. The Japanese continued to urge, however (especially through the semi-official Seoul Press) that missionaries ought to abandon this technically correct position and undertake real co-operation. We need not point out to you the delicacy and difficulty of the situation. At this conference the question of the actuality of atrocities was raised. Dr. Moffett gave his own personal experience as an eyewitness. In private conversation with Dr. Moffett, Mr. Yamagata, Editor of the Seoul Press, cheerfully admitted that he was convinced of the truth of the atrocities, but he said that the denials as published in the Press were "official." In a subsequent interview Dr. Avison and Bishop Welch were assured by Mr. Sekiya that the present "lenient" methods of suppression were to be exchanged for extreme measures in the near future. Dr. Welch assured him that any great amount of bloodshed occurring in this connection would alienate the sympathies of the western nations. The missionaries feel that nothing is to be gained by a continuance of such conferences which might easily be used to compromise our position still further.

As to the possible success of the independence movement we can only give our personal judgment that it is hopeless; that unless there is outside international interference (which is scarcely conceivable in the present state of the world), administrative reform, and possibly, in the future, some measure of self-government is the most that can ever be secured. Japan would scarcely grant autonomy without a complete change of heart and the overthrow of the military party in Japan, and of course the revolt may be a flat failure and secure nothing.

This is a disappointment. We have not the remotest thought of meddling in politics and we cannot hold any brief in defense of Christians who have deliberately committed them-

selves to a program of revolutionary agitation, but it is maddening to have to stand by and see unarmed and unresisting people treated with brutality and violence and even shot down indiscriminately and to know that these things are daily occurring in all parts of the country.

As we look toward the future we need scarcely point out to you that, if and when reforms in administration are granted, any possible pressure that can be brought to bear in the proper quarter should be exerted to secure real religious liberty in Korea. There has not been such liberty in the past, either in regard to Christian propaganda or in Christian education in private schools, as you are aware.

### Exhibit III

As a sample of the way in which the local Japanese press is dealing with the situation, we give here a translation of an editorial in a recent edition of the Shosen Shinmun.

"The stirring up of the minds of the Koreans is the sin of the American Missionaries. This uprising is their work. In investigating the causes of the uprising, two or three missionaries have been arrested and have been examined. There are a good many shallow-minded people among the missionaries and they make the minds of the Koreans bad, and **they plant the seeds of democracy**. So the greater part of the 300,000 Korean Christians do not like the union of Japan and Korea, but they are waiting for an opportunity for freedom.

"These missionaries look upon the present Korean as they did upon the old Korean, and they consider it proper for the Koreans to say anything they want if only they enter the Christian schools. They take the statement of Wilson about the "self-determination of nations," and hide behind their religion and stir up the people.

"The missionaries have tried to apply the free customs of other nations to these Korean people, who are not wholly civilized. From the part that even girl students in Christian schools have taken, it is evident that this uprising has come from the missionaries.

"Behind this uprising, we see the ghost-like appearance of waving his wand. This ghost is really hateful, malicious, fierce.



Who is this ghost wearing the dark clothes? The missionaries and the head of the Chuntokyo. These missionaries have come out of the American nation. They have sold themselves for the petty salary of some 300 yen (\$150) per year, and they have crept out like reptiles on their belly as far as Korea. There is nothing of good that can be said of their knowledge, character and disposition.

“These messengers of God are only after money and are sitting around their homes with a full stomach. The bad things of the world all start from such trash as these. They planned this dirty work and got into league with the Chuntokyo. If we take all this into consideration these missionaries are all hated brutes.

“Why no public apology in the press? No wonder John Thomas was so brutally attacked. They would not believe him brutal.”

## Exhibit IV

STATEMENT BY.....

On the night of March 2d and the early morning of March 3d, 1919, before any demonstration occurred in Hamheung city, a number of the students and one teacher of the Christian school were arrested and taken to the police station.

On Monday, the 3d, it is said that the stores were ordered closed by the police. This caused a large number of people to congregate on the main streets. Some one in the crowd blew a bugle, and with this the crowd shouted, “Three cheers for the independence of Korea,” and waved Korean flags. Students from the different schools in the city were present and a large number of them were arrested. On this day Japanese firemen appeared with the fire-fighting lance-hooks, but no one was seriously hurt.

On March 4th, about 12:30 noon, loud cheering was again participated in by the Koreans. With this cheer the Japanese fire brigade was let loose among the crowds with clubs; some carried pickax handles; others their long lance fire-hooks, some iron bars, others hardwood and pine clubs, some with short-handled club hooks. They rushed into the crowds, clubbing them over the heads, hooking them here and there with their

lance-hooks, until in a short time many had been seriously wounded, and with blood streaming down their faces were dragged to the police station by the fire brigade.

Among those so treated was a young man named Chai Kyusae, a student and a younger brother of one of the Korean policemen. He was crying as if in great pain; his head hung to one side from a terrible wound in the left side of his head; blood was streaming down his face. This man was sent home after a few days in a critical condition.

Another man was being dragged along towards the police station by two Japanese firemen. Across his head was the mark of a violent blow, and his face was knocked out of shape from a blow on the left side, from which blood was flowing. His left leg also hung limp, and he, too, groaned in pain. This man is a Christian, about fifty years of age. After treatment in the hospital for several days he was set free by the police with no charge against him. His name is Chai Haksung.

Another of those dragged to the police station was Fak Yichin, a student from one of the non-Christian schools. His skull was so badly crushed that after a few days he was sent out in apparently a dying condition to the home of his friends.

On this same day at least seven Korean men and a number of girls were taken to the police station in a pitiful condition from the wounds received.

While these scenes were being enacted the police and gendarmes seemed to take no part in the arrests, but simply kept guard over the Japanese fire brigade as they clubbed and arrested the Koreans.

So far as was seen there was no resistance made by the Koreans; they neither lifted a stick nor hurled a stone to defend themselves, nor did they utter a word of abuse against the Japanese.

On March 6th the stores in Hamheung were still closed and consequently a large number of people were out on the streets. Near the cattle market cheering was again indulged in, and with this the Japanese fire brigade again rushed out with their clubs. A number were clubbed and arrested, among whom was one Pyon Eung Kwan. He was struck on the back of the head with a club and was carried, apparently dead, to the police station. Even on this occasion not a stone or a stick was raised



by a Korean; not even a word of abuse was heard. After a few days Pyon was sent home a free man, but with no redress.

A few days later, it is said on reliable information, about ten miles out from Hamheung on market day the Koreans cheered as they had done in Hamheung. They were not interfered with by the police, and after they had cheered the police officer spoke a few kind words to them and they all went home. It is also said that on March 13th the Koreans at Sinheung on market day cheered for Korea. The police opened fire on the defenceless crowd and four were killed and four were wounded. Among the killed was a woman who, at the time, was passing with a jar of water on her head. The sight of the dead and wounded wallowing in their blood so exasperated the Koreans that they stoned the gendarmes.

Four Koreans are reported killed at Sungdok, near Hamheung.

During these days a large number have been arrested, among whom are many leading Christians. This is, in brief, what has happened in Hamheung and vicinity up to the fifteenth of March.

I was an eyewitness to what happened on March 4th as herein above stated.

## **Exhibit V**

### **DECLARATIONS REGARDING ATROCITIES**

ORIGINAL SIGNED BY.....

#### **At Suna Ub**

During the first days of the demonstration in March a crowd of two or three hundred people visited the gendarme station at Suna Ub, Whanghai Province, and told the gendarmes that the country had declared its independence and that they should leave. The gendarmes replied that of course if the country had secured its independence they would leave, but that they would need to receive orders from Seoul before they could do so. This satisfied the crowd and it left. A matter of two hours later another crowd of people came and made the same demand. This time the gendarmes opened fire on them and killed five people. A number of others were wounded and thrown into the prison. Later on an old man went to the gendarme station

to protest against the treatment meted out to the Koreans. This man the gendarmes shot dead. His wife came in, and finding the body, sat down beside it, wailing, as is the custom of the Koreans. She was told to keep still, and, not doing so, was also killed. That day or the next morning, the daughter of this couple, going to the gendarme station, was slashed with a sword. The wounded men who had been thrown into prison were kept two days, a little bit of rice given them but not a bit of water. They were in such terrible thirst that they say they drank their own urine. After two days they were turned out by the gendarmes and some of them were taken over to the Suan Mining Company's Hospital at Tulumichang. Their wounds having had no proper treatment gangrene had set in. One man had a bad wound in the thigh which was gangrenous. Another had to have his arm amputated at the shoulder because of the poisoned condition due to neglect after he had been wounded. Of the men who were brought to the hospital, one man was about thirty-nine years of age, the others were over sixty years of age.

#### At Maungsan

During the first part of March after the people at this place had shouted for independence, fifty-six people were asked by the gendarmes to come to the gendarme station, which they did. When they were all inside the gendarmerie compound the gates were closed, gendarmes climbed up on the wall and shot all the people down. Then they went in among them and bayoneted all who still lived. Of the fifty-six, fifty-three were killed and three were able later to crawl out of the heap of dead. Whether they lived or not is not known. A Christian woman in whom we have confidence made her way to foreign friends after several days' travel and made the above statement. Undoubtedly it is true.

#### At Anju

On the night of the — of March, when the people had shouted for independence but had used no violence at all, the police and gendarmes fired on them and killed seven and wounded many others. These were taken to the local hospital. Later the police visited all the houses in the city looking for those who had taken part in the demonstrations. When they did not

find them often they beat the women and dragged them about by their hair. One woman had seven teeth knocked out. The mother of one of the wounded men having told a policeman that if her son died she would take revenge on him, this policeman went to her house and again stabbed her son who was lying on the floor wounded. The people having protested to the magistrate he admitted that he had done badly, and the woman whose teeth had been knocked out was able to identify the man who had done it.

### At Pan Suk

Today, March 29th, 1919, I visited the village of Pan Suk, sixteen miles to the east of Pyengyang. Here at the edge of the village of some fifty houses is a church and school-house combined. On the seventh of March was held one of the independence demonstrations. Soldiers came and pulled over the bell-tower, breaking the bell. With the clapper of the bell and other means they broke all but three of the many panes of glass in the twenty or more 3x5 windows in the building. They broke the lamps and the pulpit and destroyed all the Bibles and hymn-books. Five men and one woman were stripped of all clothing and beaten with guns and with clubs. One man was burnt with matches. The house of the school teacher was broken into; the chest in which his clothes were was smashed and the clothes burnt. Several were arrested. One man of between 50 and 60 years was taken to Kyengyang and beaten till he died about the 26th of March. On the 24th of March soldiers came to the village near by, looking for one of the elders of the church. Not being able to find him, they took his wife, a bright-looking woman of about thirty. They led her with her two-year-old baby to a near-by grove and attempted to force her to tell where her husband was. She would not tell. No doubt she did not know, as the leaders of the church have fled. They stripped her of all her clothing and beat her without mercy. I talked with the woman to-day and she was still stiff and sore from the beating.

### At Keng Syo

On Sunday, March 30th, 1919, Rev. — and Miss — went to Keng Syo. They found, as they said, "A pretty bad condition." The people had not waited for the arrival of the

missionaries in the afternoon, but at 11 a. m. had met for Sunday School. As about twenty-five were praying, soldiers came in, stuck their guns through four panes of glass, beat the keeper, and arrested four men and three women. None of these were officials, the officials either all having been arrested or having fled long ago.

## Exhibit VI

STATEMENT BY.....

On Wednesday, March 19, 1919, I telegraphed to our Korean preacher at Kokei that I would be coming to Kokei on the following day, object being to see the property of the Oriental Missionary Society, of which I am the Superintendent in Chosen.

On Thursday, March 20, 1919, I arrived at Kokei at about 3 P. M., in company with my Korean helper, who can speak the Japanese language fluently. Our preacher there had already informed the police of my intended visit. We had tea at a Japanese hotel and ordered our supper for 6:30 P. M. At about 4 o'clock I went to examine the preacher's house and Mission, and while standing outside examining the land with the object of making some alterations, we saw about five young lads running down the hill, yelling "Mansei." They ran past us, waving flags, and disappeared. We thought no more of the incident, but a few minutes later four soldiers carrying rifles rushed up, followed by several policemen. They took hold of us and beat us and kicked us mercilessly, refusing to hear of explanation, and started to take us to the police station. On the way I showed the policeman, who was dragging me about, my passport and police certificate issued by the Seoul Police on the 17th inst., but instead of examining it he threw it on the ground. I endeavored to pick it up, but was struck and beaten on the head and kicked, and one Japanese man from the crowd, which consisted of many Japanese and many Koreans looking on, hit me with a long heavy stick as thick as a man's arm. My two Korean helpers were beaten very cruelly, one of them being struck on the face, causing a wound from which blood flowed. On my arrival at the police station I saw the police again cuff and kick my Korean helpers. I was then taken to a room by myself. I remonstrated with a Korean who appeared to be a police officer,

and asked that my passport might be found, and at 5:30 they brought it to me. Then the Chief of Police (a Japanese) came in, and I spoke to him through the Korean officer. He asked me a great many questions and then asked me to return to my hotel, saying he was sorry, which I refused to do, as the crowd was still outside. I told him I had nothing to do with the boys, who had only run past where I was standing. I heard the Korean officer say that the five boys had been examined and they said they did not even know that a foreigner was in the town.

At 8:15, after I had had some food from my bag, which had been brought to me from the hotel, the Chief of Police again said he was sorry and that they had made a mistake. He brought me two papers, written in Japanese, and asked me to sign them. I refused, not knowing what they were about. My Korean helpers, who had already signed the papers, came and asked me to sign, saying that if I did the police would let me go. I absolutely refused to sign, though they tried to persuade me to do so for about a quarter of an hour. Then, as the train left at 8:40, they sent for two rickshas, and escorted by two policemen, we went to the railway station and caught the train for Taiden, where I stayed the night.

## Exhibit VII

### STORIES OF WOUNDED KOREANS IN SEVERANCE HOSPITAL

INTERVIEWED BY..... March 29, 1919.

(1) Ri In Ok, a student, 19 years old, from Anju, was wounded in the left leg by a bullet. On March 2nd, he, with many other students, joined a crowd, perhaps 4,000 strong, and shouted the cry of independence, whereupon approaching the office of the gendarmes about seven Japanese gendarme officers came out and began firing at the crowd. Many shots were fired and eight men were killed and twenty wounded among the Koreans. The rifle-firing dispersed the crowd, who had shown no violence, carried no stones, sticks or weapons. This young man went to the local Korean hospital but after superficial treatment was advised to go to the Christian hospital in Seoul, where he could get satisfactory treatment and the bullet could be



located. He arrived in Seoul on March 5th and was at once admitted and successfully operated on by the resident surgeons. No religious belief at all.

(2) No Chong Yun, aged 61, a farmer, living just outside Anju, was in the same crowd as above student, and his statement coincides with his, though questioned independently. This man was also shot in the leg, the right one. Asked why he did not go to the Pyengyang Hospital, he replied that he was afraid of the Japanese there, lest they would arrest and further illtreat him. This man also had no special religious belief and did not belong to any church, native or foreign. He came to the hospital on March 5th and was immediately treated by the doctors.

(3) Kim Nam San, aged 27, of Paiju: Went from his village on market day to the local market at Kong Ung, with many of his neighbors. There a crowd of about 1,000 gathered, shouting the cry of independence. It was not long before the gendarme force appeared, comprising six Japanese and two Koreans; the former only carried rifles. As the crowd continued to shout, the Japanese fired many times, killing four and wounding three (as far as he knew). He, with others, were running away when a bullet struck him in the shoulder and he fell over. The Koreans used no violence and no weapons, sticks or stones. This man has no religious belief, and does not attend any church or society.

(4) Ko Myen Man, aged 25, lives in Whanghaido. He went to the Magistrate's town on March 23rd, and, joining a crowd of several hundred, shouted the independence cry in front of the Magistrate's office. Upon this, gendarmes and police came out with clubs, swords and guns. They rushed upon the crowd, striking down many with clubs and swords, and also fired their rifles, killing at least three and wounding twenty or more. Upon this the crowd ran away. This man refused to go to the Japanese hospital, but went to the Korean local hospital, but the doctor could do little for him. He recommended him to come up to Severance. He came on March 24th and was immediately attended to and is now recovering. He had a gunshot wound in the upper part of his leg. He has no religious belief and attends no church.

(5) Ri Tol Sa of Duksan, aged 23, said that in the evening about 300 or so villagers gathered and went around the neigh-



borhood shouting the cry of independence. They came to the gendarme station, and there, without any violence, stood shouting and waving the Korean flag. The officers of the gendarmes, through the Korean interpreters, asked them to go away. While this was going on motor cars arrived from Seoul (three or four miles away) with a number of gendarmes. Then suddenly about fifteen gendarmes came out and fired on the people. As far as he knows one was killed and twelve wounded. This man was wounded in the foot. He said that some Korean gendarmes had guns, but he did not know whether they fired or not. All of the crowd were of the working class. He came into the hospital and received immediate attention the next morning (March 26th). This man is not associated with any church or sect.

(6) Ri Kai Tong, aged 27, of above village, corroborated the above statement, though in a separate ward. This man was shot in the leg.

(7) Yum Tok Chang, of above village, aged 35, gave similar evidence. He was shot in arm and side. No religion.

(8) Song Yunk Pak, aged 21, of same place. Shot through upper lip. Also endorsed above statements. No religion.

(9) Kang Yong Ie, aged 36, terribly wounded by being shot at close quarters; leg smashed. Gave same account as above. No religion. He is from Duksan.

(10) A man terribly injured in head. Could not give any account of his accident. He is lying in semi-conscious state.

(11) Cha Oh Kyun, aged 36, of Ko Yang, about eight or nine miles from Seoul, wounded in lower left arm. The stores in the village had closed in sympathy with the desire for independence, but were ordered by local gendarmes (Japanese) to reopen. They refused, and next day about 70 men and boys went up the hill behind the village and shouted the independence cry. The local gendarmes, a Japanese and a Korean, came out, and the Japanese fired. This man was shot and the others ran away. The Koreans used no violence, had no stones or sticks, only a Korean flag or two. This man said that the local gendarmes used to be fairly friendly. He did not belong to any church or sect, though once used to attend the Chundokyo meetings, but had not for some time. He came to the hospital on March 28th and promptly received attention.

(12) An Tong An, 54, of Ko Yang Koon, was struck on

arm with a sword in its scabbard, and when down on the ground was beaten with clubs. He said that 500 or so gathered in the neighborhood and, after marching around, shouted the independence cry outside the gendarmes office. A number of Japanese gendarmes (so he thought) were there in civilian clothes, and very soon five mounted policemen, five gendarmes with guns, and twenty civilians (private clothes policemen), rushed down on the crowd. This was after the gendarme officer told them to go, threatening them with his revolver, whereupon the crowd said they were not afraid of that. The Koreans used no violence and did not carry sticks or stones. He came to the hospital March 28th and had prompt attention. He has no religious beliefs.

(13) Kim Kwang Un, age 72, of Anak, went to On Chang market, and, with others, perhaps 500 or 600, called "Mansay." The head gendarme exhorted them to go away, hit several, and insulted others with bad names. At this the crowd surged round and asked why he should strike the people, and as there were several arrested in the gendarme station they asked for their release. The crowd would not disperse so two Japanese and two Korean gendarmes came out and fired, killing three and wounding many, perhaps twenty. Then the Koreans, enraged, threw stones at the station, and the gendarmes continued to fire from behind the fence. This man was shot in the shoulder. He tried to get to Seoul, and was arrested at Chinnampo, hands tied, and he was beaten and insulted and questioned as to who told him to go to Severance. The same thing happened at Chai Ryung Ub, but after telling him to go to the Japanese hospital they found that he was not to be frightened and let him go. He came to Seoul and was given immediate help. He is a member of the Presbyterian church.

(14) Song Yun Pok, of Duksan, aged 21. Shot in face. Broken half of bullet extracted from upper jawbone behind. Gave same evidence as other men from Duksan.

(15) Koo Nak Saw, admitted in frightfully mutilated condition. Died after a few hours. Got no particulars from him.

(16) Ri Nam Kee, aged 22, of Paju, beaten with clubs so badly that we could get no information from him as to particulars of wounds. Admitted on Saturday, March 29th, and died at 1:00, Sunday afternoon.

STATEMENTS TAKEN BY.....

(17) Sung Yong, age 16, lives near the river at Hyum Sung Li. On the evening of the 23rd of March, at 10 P. M., this boy went out with a crowd of men and boys, shouting "Mansay." About twenty soldiers came to disperse them. Most of the crowd scattered. This lad dropped behind and was wounded by a bayonet in the hand of one soldier who ran ahead. Then a second soldier came up behind and thrust a bayonet in the lad's stomach. The cut was four or five inches in length on the right side of the abdomen. He was a third-year student of the Huun Sang School. He had a grandmother who had attended the Presbyterian church. He himself had gone a few times only. His mother was not a believer.

(18) Yi Han Dom, aged 32. At See Ki Moon An, inside the little East Gate Seoul. About the 22nd of March several hundred men went out without any stones or clubs and cried "Mansay." Soldiers came and fired on them. One shot him and he will probably lose an eye.

(19) Mi Syun Myung, aged 33, a rice huller. At Tukum went out with a crowd of about 500 men, unarmed. Yelled "Mansay." Four gendarmes came on the scene, fired, killing one and wounding eight others, of whom he was one. Not a member of any church or of the Chundokyo. He was shot through both legs with one bullet.

(20) Chung Yung Heui, aged 34, lives in the county of Paiju. On March 28th, at one o'clock in the afternoon, a crowd of 400, yelling "Mansay," were met by Japanese gendarmes, who fired. Eight men were killed. They had done no violence, and were not even armed with rocks. This man was shot through the neck.

(21) Yu Yung Kun, aged 42, a leader of the Sin San Lee Presbyterian church in Paiju county, 65 li from Seoul. A crowd of probably 1,000 men went out with bare hands to cry "Mansei." He was shot by Japanese gendarmes who followed, shooting as they ran. Three were killed and three wounded. This man was shot through the side of the neck.

(22) Koo Chun Myun, a farmer, aged 34, went out with a crowd of 500 or 600 at Kwang ju Ub on 27th of March at 1 P. M. The gendarmes fired, and this man was hit on the jaw and a large part of the jawbone shot away. Three were killed and this man severely wounded.

## Exhibit VIII

INTERVIEWED BY.....APRIL 1-5, 1919

(1) Song Si Ung, of Po Chun, aged 47, gave same evidence as previous man. (See No. 16, Series 1.) This man was shot in top of skull. Bullet extracted by Dr. Ludlow. No religion.

(2) Syung Myeng Ni, aged 32, of Duksan, was shot in leg and operated on by Dr. Ludlow. This man is not in normal senses, so cannot investigate particulars. Took part in crowd shouting, as others above. No religion.

(3) San Syen Nan, aged 27, of Po Chun, San Myen, Syen Tal Li. Went to market at Solmoo Chang on market day, and, with about 200 others, called "Mansei." The gendarmes came out, warned the people not to enter the market calling out. But the crowd continued to come on. They had no sticks or stones and showed no violence. The Korean gendarmes fired into the air, but the Japanese gendarmes fired into the crowd. Nine were killed and many injured. This man was shot in the leg, and managed by stealth to get up to Severance. No religion.

(4) Pak Yun Nak, aged 25, of Ko Yang Kun, Chi to Nyen, Totangki, a church member in Sa Myen church, met with all his villagers and those of other villages at the end of March, and without violence paraded the village, calling "Mansay." Some mounted gendarmes came from Seoul after this and told the people to stop calling and parading and to go home. This they did and that day there was no violence or trouble. Five days later a number of gendarmes from Seoul came down, and, going from house to house, inquired if the occupant had called "Mansay" on the previous occasion. This man replied "Yes, but we stopped and went home when you told us to." This man and many others were arrested and taken to Seoul. At the Governor General's (he said, not the prison) he and many others were taken out and flogged. I saw the bruises on his body. He received 60 strokes, 30 at 12 o'clock and 30 at 2 o'clock. Many others received like treatment. He is now in the hospital awaiting attention.

The following young men gave exactly the same evidence:

- (5) Chung Hung Pong, aged 16.
- (6) Ri Chun Sai, aged 21.
- (7) Chang Oo Sang, aged 24.

(8) Pak Cha Kwo, aged 41, of E. Chun Ub, Ri Chung Moon, Umnai Myen, Pang Ko Ri, are arrived in hospital April 3rd with bad bullet wound through neck. Was attended to immediately and life saved. He, with others, shouted on market day. There was a big crowd but no violence shown. In the evening they were attacked by the Japanese gendarmes and many killed and wounded. This man's neck was in such bad condition that he could hardly speak and so could not give much evidence.

(9) Kim Kum Tung, a lad of 15 years (13 western count) of Choong Chong Do, was brought to the hospital on the back of his father. He was shot through the thigh and forearm. The father gave the following account: The little village, as arranged, went out on the evening of April 1st, and shouted "Mansay." About midnight fires were lit on the hills, and shouts went up, but no violence was shown. Presently eight Japanese gendarmes appeared and fired on this band of twenty men and boys, with the result that one was killed and thirteen wounded.

(10) Pang Choon Ho, 25 years, of above village, shot in leg, gave similar evidence as above. His younger brother, Pang Sin Sik, aged 21, was shot in many places on legs and arms, and his elder brother was killed.

(11) Pak Syung Koon, aged 44, of above village, gave a like account of the shooting affray. This man was shot with B.B. shot. He was struck in many places.

(12) Ri Pok Yun, aged 26, of Suwon, said that on the last of March he joined a crowd of from 300 to 350 villagers from the neighborhood. They paraded through the villages until they came to the Myen So (District Local Office). There the Myen Jang (Village Headman), joined them and they went on to the police office. The Korean officer in charge came out and said, "Because I am a policeman in the government employ and wearing a uniform, I cannot join you, but my heart is with you. Go on, call out 'Mansay,' and I hope we will get independence." Going a little further they were suddenly approached by three Japanese soldiers, who fired, wounding two men, who fell. The other demonstrators ran away, but on seeing that two of their neighbors were wounded, forty or fifty of them came back. These were at once arrested under threat, tied together, and



taken to the Suwon police station. There they were kept for two days, searched, examined, and beaten from 50 to 90 strokes, and then sent home. The two wounded men were also sent home. In the meantime a Japanese doctor had looked at the wounded men and tied up this patient's leg, which had a bullet wound, with cotton wool. He came to Severance Hospital on April 4th. The crowd did no violence, he asserts, simply waved the Korean flag and shouted the independence cry.

### **Exhibit IX**

#### **DEATH OF A KOREAN YOUNG MAN BY NAME OF KOO NAK SOH**

On March 27th, at about 9 P. M., a large body of young men gathered at Andong, Seoul, and shouted "Mansei." The shouting had continued for a few minutes when a large force of police gendarmes and soldiers arrived and dispersed them. The above-named young man, like the others, was peacefully going home and alone, was walking along a small street when suddenly some one pushed him violently in the back, causing him to stumble and fall. His assailant was a policeman who had seen him in the crowd and followed him to the place where he thought fit to make the attack. After throwing him to the ground the policeman drew his sword and literally hacked at him "like a woodsman would attack a rough old oak." His skull was cut right through so that the brain was visible. This had been accomplished by at least three sword cuts falling in or near the same place. His hands were terribly cut, his left wrist was also cut through to the bone. Those who saw the corpse stated that there were twenty sword cuts but the photograph only reveals ten.

After this brutal attack on this unarmed and defenceless young man, the officer ran away, leaving him in his terrible agony to expire in a few minutes. Some Koreans, happening to pass by, carried him to the nearest native hospital (Kuck Chai Hospital), but little could be done, so they placed him on a stretcher and started out for the Severance Union Medical College, still thinking that his life might be saved. While hurrying to the Severance Hospital they were stopped by a policeman from the Honmachi police station, who spoke to them in a threatening way and did all he could to prevent the case being taken to a



foreign hospital. They remonstrated, saying that the case was so serious that a delay in taking the man to the Japanese hospital, which was some distance away, would surely result fatally. The Japanese are naturally anxious that such cases should not be seen by foreigners. On arriving at the Severance Hospital medical examination revealed the fact that the man was already dead. It is impossible to say just when he died. His dead body presented the most pitiful appearance. Numbers of sword cuts had mutilated his head and hands. His clothing was saturated with blood—indeed a sight never to be forgotten.

During the following day his little cousin, a mission school girl, stood watch over his body in the morgue, nothing would persuade her to leave the remains of the one she loved. Another life has been sacrificed for the cause of Korean liberty. "We hope that the great God who sees our pitiful state will come ere long and judge in righteousness and justice."

Note—The deaths so far are estimated at about 1,000, while those in prison number about 6,000. The people have not one rifle or sword among them. They lift up their empty hands and call upon God and all those who knowing him love righteousness and justice.

## **Exhibit X**

### **STATEMENT CONCERNING REMOVAL OF WOUNDED MEN FROM SEVERANCE HOSPITAL, APRIL 10TH**

By.....

During the forenoon of April 10th, a gendarme sergeant named H. Inouye called at the office and stated that the police wished to examine certain of the wounded men at our hospital, and asked that these men be sent to the Yamadomachi gendarmes office for examination.

The request being reported to Dr. Avison, he said that the question of their removal would have to be determined by the surgeon, Dr. Ludlow, and suggested that the examination take place at the hospital rather than that the men be subjected to the dangers of a transfer. To this they agreed, requesting that a private room be arranged where the examination could be conducted privately. They thought it might take one hour for each man.

In the afternoon, gendarme Sergeant H. Nagase, accompanied by nine gendarmes, came to the hospital and presented his card and a list of seven names of men who were to be examined. Dr. Ludlow was called in order that he might determine whether the cases could be removed from their beds to this room. Such as could be removed were examined in the room, while the others were examined at the bedside. The examination was completed in much less time than had been anticipated, so that they were through with it about 5:30 P. M., I think.

Sergeant Nagase then said he would take five men with him for further examination, leaving two with us, providing we would undertake to notify the police department twenty-four hours before their being ready for discharge. Dr. Avison called Dr. Ludlow and asked him to state whether these patients could be safely removed. Dr. Ludlow stated that none of them ought to be removed at this time. The officer said they had a doctor at the Police Department who would make the dressings and look after their treatment. Dr. Ludlow then objected in particular to the removal of three out of the five men, and after a time they consented to leaving one of those three. After further conversation they consented to leave another, taking with them three men, as follows:

Yum Myung Suk, gunshot wounds in abdomen and arm.

Song Yung Pok, gunshot wound in face—bullet extracted.

Yee Myung Keui, gunshot wounds in groin and thigh.

Four men were left in charge of the Hospital Superintendent, Miss Esteb, with directions that twenty-four hours previous to their being ready for discharge the Police Department should be notified. They are as follows:

Yi Kai Dong, gunshot wounds, right thigh and left knee.

Kang Yong Yi, gunshot wound, thigh, large portion torn away.

Kim Il Nam, gunshot wounds, both thighs and cheek.

Ryoo Soon Nyung, gunshot wounds, both thighs.

#### Story of Torture by Released Male Prisoner

On the first day of March, 1919, at 9 o'clock, a demonstration began, starting from the Nandaimon Station and proceeding toward and through the South Gate. The demonstrators were

calling "Mansei" as they ran. I happened to be in the vicinity when the demonstrations started, and, impelled by patriotic impulses, I joined the crowd and proceeded with them for some distance. I then returned to the railway station district, and some policemen, noticing perspiration on my forehead and neck, arrested me as a demonstrator. Three Japanese gendarmes took me to police headquarters, where I spent the night in a cell.

About 10 o'clock the next morning I was called before a procurator and examined. I was asked: "Why did you shout 'Mansei'?" I replied, "I was so glad to hear about the independence of Chosen that I joined in the shout." "Who instructed you to do so?" "There was nobody who instructed me; I did it of my own accord." "In that case," he replied, "you have not only violated the peace, but are a real rioter. You shall be punished, you may be sure of that." I replied, "You may punish me according to law." "Are you a Christian?" he asked. "Yes, I am."

After this I was taken to an inner quarter and shut up for two days and nights. About eleven o'clock in the morning of the third day I was released, after being admonished.

Two days after I was released, a friend called at my home and I dined with him that evening. I talked to him about a letter I had received from a friend of mine in America. My friend asked if he could read the letter, and I showed it to him. He asked me to let him take it away with him, but I did not want him to take it. Then he said, "If you will let me have it I can stir up the students in the Y. M. C. A. Industrial School. I can reach thousands of people. The students of that school are employed everywhere. I can also reach those employed in the tobacco factories. I can make this letter of use in helping the independence movement." I replied that I was sorry I could not let him have it. I bade him good-bye.

Next morning about 10 o'clock two gendarmes came to my home to arrest me. I went along with them and was imprisoned in the police headquarters. About three hours after being locked up I was brought before an examiner. The procurator asked: "Do you know your crime?" I replied, "No, I do not know my crime." He said angrily, "You must tell about the communication between you and your friend in America. If you do not you will be punished by torture." "I have had nothing to do

with it at all," I replied. At this the gendarmes who were standing near me struck me on the face with their hands. This made me indignant, and I kicked them repeatedly. For this they beat me terribly. The procurator interrupted the mêlée, and I was put in solitary confinement. Torture apparatus was placed near me. Soon after I was put in a press, in an upright posture, the sides of the press contracting as a wheel on the back was turned. I was then told to reveal the truth. But I continued to maintain my innocence. I kept on protesting, and said, "Kill me if you like." I was again put in the press, which was screwed so tightly I could scarcely breathe. Still I protested my innocence to the end. They said, "This man is a knave," and threatened to kill me.

After this, they took the middle finger of my right hand, tied strong cord around it, passed the end of the cord over a board near the ceiling, and pulled on the cord until my whole body was hanging by the finger, only the tips of my toes touching the floor. I gradually became unconscious. When I awoke I found myself lying on the floor, and do not know how long I had been left suspended. I felt my forehead and found it wet with perspiration. Although I could scarcely move my body I tried to make myself as comfortable as I could.

The following morning about eleven o'clock I was again brought out for examination, and after being admonished was released the second time. My home had been searched and no evidence of any kind had been found.

My hand was in a swollen condition, and I went to a Korean doctor for treatment for several days. Not receiving much benefit I came to the Severance Dispensary, where I received treatment in the surgical department.

## Exhibit XI

### THE EXPERIENCE OF A KOREAN GIRL UNDER ARREST BY THE POLICE

STATEMENT BY.....

It was on the fifth of March that I, with others, who, for the liberty of our loved land, formed into a procession at the South Gate, and, as a token that we were ready to shed our blood for liberty, wore red belts and red bands on our arms.

We were marching from the station toward Chongno, cheering and shouting "Mansei." As we were nearing the Dok-su Palace, all of a sudden a Japanese policeman seized me from behind by my hair and I was violently thrown to the ground. He kicked me several times with his merciless foot. At this I was rendered almost unconscious. He rushed me along by my hair and I was led to the Chongno Police Department. At the entrance of the police office, twenty or more Japanese policemen who stood in line, sneered, and kicked me and struck me with their swords and struck me in the face so many times that I became almost unconscious. The cruelty was so great that at times I did not realize whether they were beating me or someone else. This was really more than I was able to bear. My hands and legs were bleeding terribly. My body was black and blue from their blows.

I was led into a room and here again I was handled brutally, as before. They dragged me on the floor, they struck me in the face, they struck me with their swords, they flung me to one corner of the room. At this point I must have been completely unconscious, as I do not remember what happened after that.

On recovering my senses I found myself in a room packed with young men and women. I saw some of them handled so brutally it almost broke my heart to see them beaten. After some time, we were cross-examined by a police officer, one by one. It is beyond my power to convey to another person how those cross-examinations were carried on. I was made to kneel down with my legs bound together, and each question and answer was accompanied alternately by blows in the face. They spit in my face. This with curses and invectives of the worst kind. He said, "You prostitute, you vile, pregnant girl!" I was ordered to expose my breasts, but refusing, they tore my upper garment from me and I was told all sorts of inhuman things which shocked me terribly. They tied my fingers together and jerked them violently. This made me feel as if my fingers were being torn from my hand. I shut my eyes and dropped down on the floor. Thereupon the examining officers uttered a loud, angry roar and ordered me to kneel down as before, then rushed at me, seizing me by the breast, and struck me violently. Is there anything to be compared with this inhuman treatment? He then said: "You want independence, eh? Preposterous



thought. You will get independence when you are locked in jail. Your life will vanish with a stroke of the sword." He then shook me fiercely by the hair. He pulled me by the ear. But he was not satisfied even with this, so he beat me on the head with a stick without mercy. They made me to extend my hands and hold up a heavy chair, which, if I let drop, he would strike my elbow with a stick. He made me kneel down near a window, with the chair held up as before. If the chair was lowered, or it touched the window pane, he would come and strike me. An hour or so was passed in this manner, when I was told to go down the stairs. I found that I was completely exhausted. I could not walk; I crawled on the floor with much difficulty, even with the help of one of their professional spies, who followed me. I arose and attempted to go downstairs. As I made the first step down my strength gave out and so I rolled down the whole length of the stairs. I was again unconscious.

On recovering my senses, I was obliged to crawl into a room. The policeman in charge of the room was very much amused to see me crawling into the room. He laughed loudly at my misery. Then I prayed, and seemed to see Jesus, and was much comforted from on high. I thank the Lord for the comfort he gave me at this time.

I spent five days in all at the police station. Then I was sent to the West Gate Penitentiary. There I was stripped naked and was looked at by the men. Then I was allowed to put on my dress and was led into a room. I was sneered at and cursed beyond my power to realize. In this room there were sixteen persons who were like myself. The room was not very large and so we were densely packed together. The toilet arrangements are placed in the room just like the pig's shelter. The room was so filthy that it was not fit even for pigs. We were given beans and salt to eat. While we were eating, now and then, someone would look in and call us all sorts of names: "You dogs!" "You pigs!" etc.

On the second day, a person called the police doctor, and several others came in and weighed me stripped naked. They, too, sneered and spat upon me. Now and then I was told by the keeper there that I would be tried publicly. I looked forward to that with a great deal of consolation, as I thought I would have some chance to state my case without reserve, but,



alas! I was let out one day without trial, and without being told the nature of my offense or indeed that there had been legal offense.

## Exhibit XII

### STORY OF RELEASED GIRL PRISONER

REPORTED BY.....

Today, March 28th, 1919, a girl, ——, about 21 years of age, came to our home and told the following: "I was arrested on the streets of Pyengyang, the third of March, and taken to the police station. There were many others, both men and women. They asked if we smoked, if we drank, and if we were Christians. Soon all were let out with little or no punishment, with the exception of twelve Methodist women, two Presbyterians, and one Chundokyo woman. Three of the Methodist women were Bible women. They stripped all the women naked in the presence of many men. They found nothing against me except that I had been on the street and had shouted 'Mansei.' They beat me until the perspiration stood out all over my body. Then they said, 'Oh, you are hot,' and threw cold water over my naked body. My arms were pulled tight behind my back and tied. Then they beat me again until my body was covered with perspiration, and then threw the cold water over me. Then, saying I was cold, they stuck me with the lighted end of their cigarettes. (Some were stuck with hot irons.) My offense was very little compared with those who made flags, took part in the independence, etc. Some were beaten until they were unconscious. One young woman was just at the time of her monthly sickness. She resisted having her clothes taken off. They tore off her clothing and beat her all the harder—but did not pour the cold water on her. After four days we were taken to the prison. Here we were packed in a room with men and women. One day an old man was beaten until he died. One of the Bible women was right next to him. She asked to be moved, but they compelled her to watch the dead body all night. One of the Bible women not only had her hands bound, but had her feet put in stocks. They took our Bibles away and would not allow us to talk or pray. They made vile and indecent remarks to us. All this was done by the Japanese. Though there were Korean policemen in the

room they took no part in the beating or in the vileness. The Japanese know the Bible and blaspheme the name of Christ, and asked us if there was not a man by the name of Saul who was put in prison. They asked us most of all as to what the foreigners had said, and were most vile and cruel to those who had been with the missionaries, or who had taught in the Mission schools. Some of the girls were so changed that they did not look like persons."

Later, one of the above women died in the prison. (This not confirmed.)

### **Exhibit XIII**

#### **BRUTALITIES AT TAIKU**

STATEMENT BY.....

On March 8th, when occurred the demonstration here and many arrests were made, a young man by name of Kim Yong Nai, the son of the Elder-Helper of the Third City Church, and a regular member of the same, was seized by a Japanese officer, thrown to the ground, and, while prostrate, was kicked several times on the head and back of the neck. He was bleeding profusely when led into the police station. The above I have from an eyewitness.

He was kept in jail for two weeks. During this time, the eyewitness referred to, who was in the next cell and was released at the same time, testifies that he heard his friend cry out a number of times at the pain of punishment which was inflicted upon him in jail, which frequently took the form of beating one on the head with the iron key of the cell. When released, he still complained of his head. In a few days after his release he was taken-sick, and complained that he suffered terrible pain in his head and that it "seemed as if all one side of his head was gone." He became delirious and died after an illness of about ten days. The night he died he was protesting in his delirium that he was innocent and that his punishment was too severe. The doctor who attended him states that he died from blows on the head. I saw the body and the neck and the base of the skull was darkly discolored. He was a secretary to a Japanese lawyer and very widely known in the city. His father is still in jail and another member of the family is at the point of death.

Among the demonstrators at a magisterial town near here three men were shot dead and a number wounded and some forty or fifty taken prisoner. Among the wounded I have seen one and have the following story direct from him: In the early P. M. there had been a demonstration and some arrests made. Late in the P. M. he and some fifteen others were standing at an inn where was a man who had been wounded. Three Japanese soldiers and eight policemen gathered and ordered the men to leave. My informant's brother asked what they meant by shooting down an innocent unarmed man. Whereupon a soldier clubbed him with his gun. Upon seeing his brother thus treated, he objected and was fired upon and shot in the side. While streaming from this wound he again complained against such treatment, and was answered again by another shot through the neck. This second shot was fired by a local Japanese merchant, although there were at least ten regular officers of the law present and only some fifteen men gathered. I understand that two Japanese civilians did all the shooting that day and boasted of the same.

I had another personal testimony from a released prisoner of the use of the key placed between the fingers and the fingers being tied at the ends; the key is turned until the arms become paralyzed. This is the second personal testimony from eye-witnesses to this form of torture.

The reports of deaths from shooting we hear are all understated, and no record of the death or burial is made.

I spent the entire day of April 11th at the court attending the trial of some seventy odd Christians. Among them and recommended for six months were some who testified that they were simply in the crowd but had called nothing. It seemed that everything was construed in the severest form.

April 14th, 1919.

## Exhibit XIV

### ARTICLE IN SEOUL PRESS EXONERATING MISSIONARIES, MARCH 14, 1919

Rumors have been rife that foreign missionaries incited the disturbances, or at least showed sympathy with the rioters. These rumors owe their origin to the fact that among the leaders

of the rioters there have been found Christian pastors and students of mission schools, so it is not to be wondered that they gained currency. But that they are entirely groundless has been established by the result of investigations into the matter conducted by the authorities. The authorities have carried out thorough and strict inquiries concerning it and are satisfied that there is no trace whatever that foreigners instigated the disturbances. Nor is there any evidence that they knew beforehand of the occurrence of the trouble or gave support to the rioters. It is wrong to harbor suspicion against foreigners without justifiable grounds. It is still more to be condemned to spread through the press false reports and baseless accusations against foreigners, fabricating such reports and accusations out of mere suspicion. Such acts will excite the ill feeling of foreigners against Japan and may cause trouble in international relations. Should any foreigners be found guilty of sedition or similar offense, the authorities will have no hesitation in prosecuting them, but as none have been found to be responsible for the recent trouble, people at large should cast away whatever doubt they may still entertain against them.

## **Exhibit XV.**

### **THE DEMONSTRATION AT TONG CHAING**

The village of Tong Chaing contains about 300 houses. The young men of the place had been wishing to make a demonstration for some time previous, but Mr. Han, an elder in the church, and other church officers discouraged it, as they feared that there might be violence on the part of the demonstrators, there being a body of 500 miners working in the mines, not far away who might take this occasion to rise against the police.

But on March 29th, this being market day and many people having come in from outside, a demonstration was started by some children. Others joined in until there were four or five hundred people marching through the town and shouting "Man-sei." The demonstration was entirely peaceful, no stones were thrown and no resistance was offered to the officers of the law. The police came out and arrested seventeen persons, half or more of them being Christians. Among those arrested were five women. Later on other arrests were made. The people arrested

were all taken to the police station. From this point on, this account will be confined largely to the experiences of three of these women:

— is a widow living in Tong Chaing. She is thirty-one years of age (Korean count), and has one child. She was in the crowd, calling "Mansei," and was arrested by a Japanese policeman. She was taken into the office and a policeman tore off the underclothes and she protested. As a result they struck her in the face with her hands till she was black and blue. She clung to her underwear, and they put a wooden paddle down between her body and the underclothes to pry them away. They beat her systematically on the arms and legs with a paddle. The beating continued for some time. The police then stopped the beating and sat down to drink tea and eat Japanese cakes, meanwhile making fun of the woman sitting there naked. There were many men in the room. After about an hour they allowed her to have some of her clothes and sent her into an adjoining room, where many of the arrested people were detained. About the time the lights were lighted in the evening, she was called out again into the office, and put in charge of an elderly man and his wife with instructions to be responsible for her and bring her back when summoned to do so. For a week afterwards she had to lie down most of the time and could not walk around.

— is a widow, thirty-four years of age, and has two children. She also had a part in the demonstration. She was arrested by a policeman. On the way to the station, though not resisting, her arm was twisted to the point of dislocation. Taken into the office at the police station, the policeman struck her in the face with his hand, then forced her into a sitting position and kicked her in the head. She fell over here and he continued kicking her. Then he forced her to stand, and ordered her to take off her clothing. She took off the outer clothes, but left on the underclothes. She was ordered to remove these, but did not do so. At this point in their treatment of her the proceedings were interrupted by another outburst in the cheering out on the street, and many of the policemen went out to make further arrests. She was allowed to put on some of her clothes and was sent into the next room, where those arrested were detained. She was kept there all night and released the



next morning with the woman whose account is given below.

Both of the above women belonged to the middle class of Korean women, not the coolie class, and are bright, intelligent women. Both have attended the Bible Institute for a number of terms.

— is the wife of —. He was a teacher for a time in the —. She is a very bright, intelligent woman. She has one child four years of age and is probably two or three months advanced in her second pregnancy. She had taken a small part in the demonstration, and had gone to the house of Pyo Hak Sun, to comfort Pyo Hak Sun's mother, who was distressed because her daughter had been arrested. As she came out of the house, several police and soldiers came into the yard. They knew she was the school-teacher and had been searching for her at the school. They accused her of trying to hide, which she denied. Asked her if she had called "Mansei," said that she had. They ordered her to leave her child, which she was carrying on her back and come with them, and she obeyed. As she stood in front of the door of the police station, a policeman kicked her forcibly from behind, and she fell forward into the room. As she lay, stunned, on the floor, a policeman put his foot on her head. Then he forcibly raised her up and struck her many times over the head and face. He jerked at the strings that held on her clothing and ordered her to remove her clothes. She hesitating, he tore them off forcibly, meanwhile constantly kicking and striking her. He also beat her with a heavy stick and with a paddle. He tore off her underclothes and kicked her in the chest and beat her, accusing her of setting the minds of the Korean children against Japan, and said that he intended to beat her to death. She tried to cover her nakedness with the underclothes that had been stripped from her, but they were grabbed away. She tried to sit down, but was forced to rise by constant kicking and beating with a stick. She tried to turn away from the many men in the room, but was constantly forced to turn again so as to face the men. She tried to protect herself with her hands and arms, and one man twisted her arms behind her back and held them there while the beating and kicking continued. All parts of her body were beaten. She became benumbed and was losing consciousness of pain. Her face swelled and her body became discol-



ored. She had to be held up and the ill-treatment continued. Finally they ceased and put her at one side of the room, leaving her there for a time. They then took the lunch mentioned in the statement concerning Chung Chung Yul. She was afterwards ordered to put on her clothes and was sent into the next room with the others. About 9 P. M. the three women mentioned above and the other two women who had been arrested were again called into the office. They were asked if they now realized that it was a wrong thing to call "Mansei" and if they would repeat the attempt. They released three of the women but kept Pyo Hak Sun and Yi Hyo Syung. These two women were sent back to the side room, where they spent the night, as well as the other prisoners.

The next morning the examination of the prisoners began, some men being examined first. In the meantime the news of the way the women were being treated spread through the village, and a crowd of about five hundred people gathered in the morning. Some of them were for attacking the police station and taking revenge for the mistreatment of the women. But Elder Han advised against the use of violence or doing anything unlawful. Finally cooler counsels prevailed, and it was decided to send in two representatives to make a protest. Two men were chosen, neither of them Christians, and one of them speaking Japanese, and these two went into the police office, the crowd waiting outside. They protested against the stripping of the women as being unlawful. The chief of police said that they were mistaken—that it was permissible under Japanese law. Also said that they were searching for unlawful papers. The men then wanted to know why they stripped only the younger of the women and not the older, and why they were beaten after being stripped, and why only women and not men were stripped? The chief of police could not answer. There was considerable conversation. The delegates from the crowd were determined, and the crowd itself was getting more and more restless and noisy, many demanding that they too be imprisoned or that the prisoners all be released. The chief of the police was finally forced to yield, and he agreed to release all but four of the prisoners.

—, the widow mentioned above, had to be supported on either side as she came out. — had to be carried out on

a man's back. As they saw the women being brought out in this condition, a wave of pity swept over the whole crowd, and with one accord they all burst into tears and sobbed. Some of them cried out, "It is better to die than to live under such savages," and there was a strong sentiment in favor of attacking the police office with their naked hands, of capturing the chief of police and stripping him and beating him to death. But Elder Han and other wiser heads prevailed, and kept the people from any act of violence, and finally got them to disperse.

A day or two later representatives of six hundred miners from the mines not far away came to Elder Han and inquired the particulars of the affair from him. They said that it was impossible to bear with such savages, and that they were determined to make an attack on the police and take revenge. He argued with them for some time. One of them at least had been drinking, and he got out of patience with the Elder and hit him in the groin. But Elder finally persuaded them to at least wait until the Christians then under detention in the police office were either released or sent to some other place, as the Christians did not wish to be implicated in any violence.

Later another demonstration was held here, and at least two men were reported shot, but as it had no particular connection with the one partially described above, there is no necessity of details being given here.

## **Exhibit XVI**

### **STATEMENT ON POLICE METHODS**

LETTER TO HON.....

April 7th, 1919.

Dear Mr. —

We planned for the opening of the new term of college and academy on April 4th after the vacation which began March 5th, when the students had been dismissed earlier than expected and diplomas were given without graduation exercises because the night before the dormitories were visited after midnight by the firemen with clubs, and some of the students dragged out and beaten. On April 2nd and 3rd there was a systematic canvass of the city houses, and students from

Mission schools were arrested, some of them beaten, some soon dismissed, and others detained under arrest. Word from the chief of police to one of our Japanese professors was that students entering school for the new term must be sent to the police station, where they would be examined. As in the minds of all, such arrest was usually accompanied with beating and kicking, and such mistreatment before any investigation or inquiry as to conduct, it was impossible to expect any students to enroll. And as for the academy, two students came, one former student and one new one, they disappearing, however, upon the appearance of the Prefect and his interpreter with swords who came to enquire as to the prospects of opening the school. At the college one student came but left at once upon hearing what the chief of police had said. Whether this was intended to prevent the opening of schools I do not know, but it may account for the non-enrollment of students.

That afternoon, April 4th, about 3.30 P. M., when most of the missionaries had gathered for a prayer meeting at Mrs. Holdcroft's home, a cordon of police and gendarmes was suddenly picketed all about our property, and procurators and police and gendarmes began to search our residences. We were telephoned to from one of the houses. I immediately went to my house, found the compound gates shut and gendarmes on guard, about twenty police and gendarmes picketing the compound, and upon going into the house I found my wife and children watching some sixteen to twenty gendarmes, police and detectives in charge of a procurator and his interpreter already searching three rooms. I asked the head man if he had a search warrant, and he replied: "No, it is not necessary." I said: "I cannot give my consent to the search." He then gave me his card, and I said: "Of course you can forcibly search, but it will be without my consent." He said that that would be all right. (I judge that as he was a procurator he had the legal right to search even without my consent.) They spread through the whole house, and in my study and in Mrs. Moffet's bedroom made a most thorough search of desks, drawers, bureaus, papers, letters, etc., even going into my property deeds and the safe.

They were not rude nor disrespectful, and one said that he did not like the job, but had to do as he was ordered. How-

ever, it was anything but pleasant to have to endure the indignity of having twenty officers, gendarmes, police and detectives take possession of everything in order to find practically nothing. In my study among my secretary's papers in the drawer of his desk they found the following inconsequential things:

1. A copy of the program of the Prince Yi Memorial service and the Independence service of March 1st written in ink in Korean.

2. A small piece of paper with a statement in Korean of the number of men killed at Anju and the number of those who had taken part from the several villages at Anju, in the demonstration.

3. An envelope directed to the Theological Seminary, coming through the mail with stamp and postmark on it, containing five copies of the Independence Newspaper. This had come when I was in Seoul and was in the Secretary's desk, where my Korean letters are placed.

None of the above had I ever seen before, and the procurator's interpreter afterwards told me that my secretary also denied knowledge of the first two.

After searching the house, they searched the outbuildings, the guest house and an empty Korean house in the lower part of my compound where my Bible woman and her son, my secretary, had lived for years and which they again had permission to occupy. As we were trying to open the front door of the guest house, my secretary came out of the back door where apparently he had been sleeping for several nights. (I did not know he had occupied this room, although he had had my permission since February to reoccupy the Korean house where he had formerly lived; that is to say, this house in the lower part of the compound.) They seized him, tied him, and according to the statement of my two sons who saw it (I did not see it), they hit him, kicked him, punched him, his nose bleeding, and one man hit him across the cheek with a short whip. In the empty Korean house referred to they found two copies of a mimeographed notice in Korean, thin paper rolled up into a small ball and thrown away. The detective told me that a boy had confessed that several of them had taken my mimeograph from the study and printed notices

in that empty house. I, of course, knew nothing of it, and if true, it was probably done during my nine days absence in Seoul, March 17th to 25th.

While searching my house, the houses of Miss Snook, Mr. Mowry, Mr. Gillis, Mr. McMurtrie, Mr. Reiner, Dr. Baird, and the Foreign School Dormitory were also searched. Miss Betts refused permission to search that house as they had no warrant, and their supply of procurators being short, there was no procurator in that party of police and they refrained from searching her house. At Miss Snook's house they arrested the matron, cook (a woman) and a young man, Miss Salmon's secretary, searching Miss Salmon's room very carefully. At Mr. Mowry's they arrested a teacher of the City Church School who was leaving just as the police came, he having come to see Mr. Mowry, the principal, about the opening of school that day, also a student who had just been released from jail and had come to tell Mr. Mowry about his release. I think another boy was taken there, and I understood they expressed disappointment at not finding Mr. Mowry's secretary. At Mr. Gillis' house they arrested a boy who had been working in his garden for two weeks, a theological student from the country who had come in, and a medical student from Seoul, formerly a student here. These three had hidden in the house before Mr. Gillis returned from prayer-meeting. In Mr. Reiner's yard—who had been somewhere on the compound and who was trying to escape, gave himself up to the gendarmes, who proceeded to beat him, strike him on the head and knocked him down, after which they kicked him on the head several times. At Dr. Baird's they arrested a college student who was acting as secretary to him.

So far as I know there was nothing wrong about any of these being on our places or in our houses, most of them having regular occupations. But as the whole population is fearful of unlawful beatings, some of them, when they saw the police coming, hid and tried to escape capture. They searched my cook also, but did not arrest him. They marched off with their captives and went through the seminary dormitories, from which they took another mimeograph, and, breaking two windows in the Southern Presbyterian Cottage for Professors, I am told arrested a man who had gone in



there. Three men came back and asked to take two mimeographs from my study, to which I consented, asking for a receipt, which they said I could get the next day at the police office. That night, between seven and eight o'clock, Mr. Mowry telephoned me that a messenger from the police office had come, asking him and me to go down. I met them at my gate and we went down together. We were shown into a small room where were three police and sat down, waiting for thirty-five minutes before Mr. Mowry was called out for examination. While waiting, we were talking together in English when one of the policemen said, "You are not allowed to talk." Surprised, I replied, "What, are we under arrest?" He jumped up at once and said, "Wait a minute," went out, and came back shortly, saying, "Never mind it is all right." I replied "Of course it is," and we continued our conversation. After Mr. Mowry was called, I was kept waiting another hour, and was then called out for examination before the procurator and his interpreter who had searched my house, also a scribe and for a part of the time another elderly official. They were very polite and very pointed in their questions, asking particularly about my knowledge of or connection with the independence meeting of March 1st, about my secretary, his being on my place, and about the keys of the house in which he had been and whether he could have had the use of the key without my knowledge, about the use of my mimeographs, whether with my consent and knowledge as to the use to which they had been put. They asked about the three papers found in my secretary's desk in my study and about my absence in Seoul, about the salaries of my Bible woman and secretary and my own financial condition, saying that I was reputed to be very wealthy, owning much land. After an hour's questioning, in which they learned that I knew nothing, had consented to nothing, and was in no way a party to or knew anything which may have been done by my secretary or others on the place or with my mimeograph (the secretary always having full access to the mimeograph for secretarial work), that I had stayed in Seoul on account of medical work for my wife and child at the hospital, and that the land in my name was the property of the Board of Missions, of the Church and of schools, they finished the examination.



I then made request for a policeman to accompany me and Mr. Mowry home, as it was near midnight and a missionary had recently been stopped at night on the way to the railway station by two Japanese armed with clubs, and it was not safe for foreigners to be out at night. They said there was no danger, but I called their attention to the fact that the Japanese papers were publishing abusive articles about us and that the low-class Japanese had great hatred towards us. They consented to send a policeman, asking me to wait a little while, and I was shown into the main office of the police station, where I saw sitting on the floor at one end the group of students and secretaries who had been arrested that afternoon and Dr. Baird's translator who had been arrested the night before. I asked if I might speak to them, but was refused permission to do so. After waiting some twenty minutes the procurator and his interpreter came in and said that they would send a policeman home with me. I suggested that I wait for Mr. Mowry, but they said that his examination was not yet finished, and that I had better go first. I then asked to see Mr. Mowry, to tell him that I was going out and would relieve his wife's anxiety by telling her that they would send a policeman with him a little later. One said, "He is now being examined, but I will tell him." I then went, accompanied by a Korean policeman, but could not waken Mrs. Mowry, so went home. I did not sleep well, and in the morning had a hard headache, so stayed in bed. About seven o'clock Mrs. Mowry telephoned Mr. McMurtrie that Mr. Mowry had not come home and asked if I had. He came to see me and I suggested that he get Mr. Bernheisel and at once go to the police station ascertain the situation, and if Mr. Mowry were under arrest, to ask the nature of the charges, telegraph you at once, ask to see Mr. Mowry, and send him food. Mr. Bernheisel will write you what followed. I hope that I have not written in too great detail, but it seems better to write some things which may seem of trivial import rather than leave out the very things you may wish to hear.

Saturday afternoon, April 5th, five of those arrested were released—Miss Snook's matron cook, Miss Salmon's secretary, the City School teacher, Mr. Gillis' working boy, and Dr. Baird's secretary; and on Sunday morning Dr. Baird's translator was

released, the translator reporting that while he was not beaten, the others had been shamefully beaten while being examined. Saturday afternoon Mr. Mowry's secretary, who graduated from the college in March, came to Mr. McMurtrie's and said that he thought it best to give himself up to the police and not to try to escape from arrest. We then arranged that Mr. Bernheisel should go to the police office, Dr. Moore taking him down in his auto and report to the police that his secretary was ready to deliver himself up if they would send out a man for him. Dr. Moore brought the man, a detective who knows all the students, back in his auto, and Mr. Mowry's secretary, Yi Po Sik, came out from Mr. McMurtrie's and gave himself up. Mr. McMurtrie accompanied him and the detective in the auto to the police station and we thus secured him immunity from beating on the way. The secretary did this on his own initiative. He asked me for advice, but I told him that he would have to decide for himself. When the police came on Friday, he had hidden and escaped arrest.

This is all I need to report now. I shall write you later, commenting on the situation. I would say, however, that personally I do not believe Mr. Mowry has done anything which renders him liable to the law.

## Exhibit XVII

### STATEMENT CONCERNING THE REMOVAL OF WOUNDED MEN FROM SEVERANCE HOSPITAL

BY DR. O. R. AVISON, PRESIDENT

During the forenoon of April 10th, a gendarme sergeant named H. Inouye called at the office and stated that the police wished to examine certain of the wounded men in our hospital, and asked that these men be sent to the Yamadomachi gendarmes office for this examination.

The request being reported to Dr. Avison, he said that the question of their removal would have to be determined by the surgeon, Dr. Ludlow, and suggested that the examination take place at the hospital rather than that the men be subjected to the dangers of transfer. To this they agreed, requesting that a private room be arranged where the exam-

ination could be conducted privately. They thought it might take one hour for each man.

In the afternoon, Gendarme Sergeant H. Nagase, accompanied by nine gendarmes, came to the hospital and presented his card and a list of seven names of men who were to be examined. Dr. Ludlow was called in order that he might determine whether the cases could be removed from their beds to this room. Such as could be removed were examined in the room, while the others were examined at the bedside. The examining was completed in much less time than had been anticipated, so that they were through with it about 5.30 P. M., I think.

Sergeant Nagase then said he would take five men with him for further examination, leaving two with us provided we would undertake to notify the Police Department twenty-four hours previous to their being ready for discharge. Dr. Avison called Dr. Ludlow and asked him to state whether these patients could be safely removed. Dr. Ludlow stated that none of them ought to be removed from the hospital at this time as they still needed treatment. The officer said they had a doctor at the Police Department who would make the dressings and look after their treatment. Dr. Ludlow then objected in particular to the removal of three out of the five men, and after a time they consented to leave one of those three. After further conversation they consented to leave another, taking with them three men, as follows:

Yum Myung Suk—Gunshot wound in abdomen and arm.

Song Yung Pok—Gunshot wound in face—bullet extracted.

Lee Myung Keui—Gunshot wounds, groin and thigh.

Four men were left in charge of the hospital superintendent, Miss Esteb, with directions that twenty-four hours previous to their being ready for discharge the Police Department should be notified. They are as follows:

Yi Kai Dong—Gunshot wounds, right thigh and left knee.

Kang Yong Yi—Gunshot wound, thigh, and large portior torn away.

Kim Il Nam—Gunshot wounds, both thighs and cheek.

Ryoo Soon Myung—Gunshot wounds, both thighs.

## Exhibit XVIII

### STATEMENT BY A KOREAN STOREKEEPER

"On April 1st a Japanese policeman and a detective came to my home and asked to see the owner. I replied that the master of the house had gone to the country. I was told to telegraph immediately for him, saying the police required to see him at once. The officers then told me that I must go with them to the provincial police bureau. I asked that they go first and I would follow right away. To this they replied: 'We must go together.'

"On arriving at a police box the policeman telephoned somewhere, stating that the master was away, and that he was bringing one of the employees, and asked whether that was satisfactory. The reply was 'Yes.' I was then escorted by these officers to the provincial police bureau, where, on entering, I found a large number of business men. We were spoken to and then given a notice, which we were told to read carefully. We were further told that we had broken the law and had done very badly for a whole month by keeping our stores closed, but for that offense we would be forgiven. If, however, after this special forgiveness, we again offended by not opening we would be punished severely by the law. We were then asked to sign the following guarantee: "If you will please help and protect us we will open our shops immediately.' We were told that if we refused to sign this document we would not be released. As far as I know all signed.

"A spy then accompanied me to the store and threatened that if I did not open he would take me back to the police bureau. I opened reluctantly, and in a short time one Japanese and one Korean spy came and stayed around the store until closing time.

"April 2nd, 1919, I did not come down to the store until late in the morning. When I arrived I found that the lock had been wrenched and the staple broken so that the doors could be opened. I had not been in the store long when a Korean policeman came and stated that I must report to the police box at Kurigai. I went along with the policeman and the son of the proprietor accompanied us. We were asked why we had not opened early, to which I replied that owing to some special business it was impossible. A Japanese policeman slapped me

on the face for this answer. The son of the storekeeper was also slapped quite frequently. I was struck only a few times. One of the officers in the police box wrote on a piece of paper: 'I promise to open the store at about 8 o'clock in the morning.' To this I had to put my seal.

"April 3d. I came down to the store at 9:00 A. M. and opened up. Pretty soon a policeman came, and said, 'Why did you not open up at 8 A. M. as you promised?' I made some excuse, so again I was told to go to the police box. Once more I was scolded, but not struck. The officer said that I must write another statement in which I was allowed to open between 8:00 and 9:00 A. M., but not later.

"April 4th. Opened between 8:00 and 9:00 A. M. and no trouble."

## Exhibit XIX

### A PERSONAL LETTER

(To a Canadian)

April 10th, 1919.

Dear Mr. \_\_\_\_\_ :

I suppose you have heard of the Korean revolt. All of us are so exercised over it that it is hard to keep our noses to the grind, or our hands from the big stick. We are forced to keep as free from entanglements as possible. The Japanese have followed their usual methods—terrorism and blustering. They have tried their best to shoulder the blame of it upon the missionaries, but fortunately the rising was as much a surprise to them as it was to the authorities, if I mistake not. However that may be, let me state my reason for writing. I have tried to get an honest grasp of the young Korean's mind, and have put the result of my investigation down in black and white. I am sending you a copy. I found that the outstanding thought which remained with me was the failure of Japanese Imperialism in Korea, so I have given the paper that pretentious title. Surely the proof of successful rule is a happy, thankful, and prosperous people. Korea can come under none of these heads. You saw something of it yourself. If travelling in Korea was so annoying to you, you can take it from me that it is a great deal more so now. \_\_\_\_\_, my old teacher, came back from



Japan the day before yesterday. Every place he reached he found that his coming had been telegraphed ahead, and that he was expected. Some system, eh? He was arrested twice, and though they could find nothing against him, and let him go, it was not before he got his tale of stripes. One numbskull of a Japanese gendarme tried to force him to sign a paper saying that he would not continue his studies in theology, but take up farming. Men are being arrested here every day, and even before a question is asked them are flogged with a two-inch square rod. Doctor and I saw two men today who came from the local Consulate a few days ago. One fellow had left his house today for the first time since his release four days ago. He was so badly battered and bruised. Their shoulders were a horrible sight. Torture of the most primitive kind is used and some finer touches added. For example, one of our Christian school-teachers told me yesterday that after his flogging failed to elicit the information the Japanese wanted they bound his two first fingers together and gauged a pen through between. Try it, and see how it feels. The devilishness that finds the nerves that give excruciating pain and yet does not mutilate is—what shall I call it—Germanic? The offense of these fellows was one of having waved a Korean flag and having shouted “Mansai! Long live Korea!” I could tell you of dozens of such stories, and you would scarcely credit them. Here is one, for example: Four young fellows arrived in ——— the first day of the demonstration and took no part in it. They were theological students, and were found in the college dormitories by Japanese soldiers. Tied to a wooden cross they were given thirty-nine strokes with a paddle and told that as Christ suffered on the cross it was fitting that they should do the same, and told them they must be bad fellows since they were Christians.

Well, I have written a whole paragraph, with what continuity of thought I don't know, but the idea that runs through it is clear enough. I want you to know what is happening. You will have heard from other missionaries, but you can't hear too much. Japan is proving the Hun of the East—the big bully that strikes where no retaliation can forthcome. Koreans have been remarkably restrained. But read the article. If you think you can get it published without implicating the mission, do so. It is only right that Canada should know, as well as



other lands, what Japan is at home. Talk about "No Race Discrimination." Let her begin at home. If you should publish it let it be under the name of \_\_\_\_\_, or no name at all. If you can't get it published in the papers, at least try to get the facts of the poor Koreans plight before Canada some way. I know that we should try to keep as free as possible from political affairs. But you need to see things for yourself and then ask whether our religion must be denied the right to throw its white light into the dark corners. We can do nothing but publish the facts, but that is all they expect of us. And we in \_\_\_\_\_ have a better chance than our men in Korea. I am sending this by Chinese post.

## Exhibit XX

### FIRST ACCOUNT OF MASSACRES AND BURNING OF VILLAGES

Statement of H. H. Underwood as to trip to neighborhood of Pal Tan Market, town in County of Suwon, Kyongki Province, April 16th:

Party left Seoul about 9:30 A. M., by writer's auto, and proceeded to Pal Tan by way of Suwon and Osan, a distance of slightly over 46 miles in all. About two miles before reaching Pal Tan a large cloud of smoke was seen rising from behind a low hill beyond the market town. The car was stopped for lunch here, and the writer strolled over to a nearby cluster of houses and, finding a farmer, engaged him in conversation. After a little preliminary talk:

H. H. U.—What is that smoke?

Farmer—That is a village that has been burned.

H. H. U.—When was it burned?

Farmer—Yesterday.

H. H. U.—How was it burned?

Farmer (glancing around fearfully)—By the soldiers.

H. H. U.—Why? Did the people riot or shout for independence?

Farmer—No; but that is a Christian village.

H. H. U.—Has there been no cheering for independence here?

Farmer—Some time ago there was in the market town on market day.

H. H. U.—But not in that village?

Farmer—I do not think so. Why would they shout all by themselves without any gathering of people?

H. H. U.—Have the soldiers been here to this village? Are you Christians?

Farmer—Oh, no; there are no Christians here.

H. H. U.—What is the name of that village?

Farmer—Chay amm ni (Cheamni.)

I then found another man in the same village, and the same questions brought the same answers, with the added information that there were few or no travellers, and that it was difficult to know what was happening, and that the people had not been allowed to gather for market on the last market day.

After lunch we drove down to the town and left the car, as it was impossible to cross the stream at the entrance to the town. We walked past the police station, which is situated where the two main roads entering the town meet. A file of soldiers of the 78th Regiment was standing outside the station. As we were passing a Japanese policeman came out and demanded where we were going, and ordered us into the station. We entered as two Japanese officers got up and left. We all noticed their shoulder straps, which were red with three stars. This, I am told, is the badge of first sergeant. The policeman who had called us into the station shouldered a carbine and followed the officers, and in a moment we saw them setting off on the road to Namyang, with the policeman in the lead.

Mr. Curtice now presented his card to the officer and conversed with him in Japanese. I do not speak Japanese, but knew a little, and followed a large part of the conversation. After chatting about the roads, bridges, mutual acquaintances in Seoul, etc., Mr. Curtice casually asked about the fire. The chief said that there had been a small fire but that it was now out and did not amount to much. Asked about the disturbances, he said that there had been a little disturbance in that part of the country, but that it was now over.

After some more general conversation Mr. Curtice asked if rikishas should be procured in the town, as we would like to make a little excursion and see the fire. The chief asked, "Which fire?" Mr. Curtice said the nearby one, but that we would probably like to take a little ride for three or four miles in the

country. The chief seemed a little surprised, but said "Yes," and sent a policeman with us to the rikisha stand, where we hired three rikishas and set out. The village from which the smoke was rising was not more than a mile from the town, and after a short ride we left the rikishas and walked around the foot of the hill, on the sides of which was the village we had seen.

Our estimate and the statements of the Koreans agreed that the village consisted of about 40 houses, all of which had been burned down except four or five which were left standing. The rest were heaps of smoking ashes with flames still visible here or there. We saw groups of women, children and old men sitting on the hillside above the village watching the ruins in dumb despair.

We walked the entire length of the village, and about halfway up we saw a corpse of a young man, horribly burned, lying just outside of a building, which we learned later had been the church. This body was photographed where it lay. After going the length of the village we came back along the hillside and called to a man sitting in one of the groups mentioned. He came and I questioned him, but found that fear and shock had numbed him. He held his head in his hand and said that everything he had and all the results of years of hard work had gone. I consoled with him and asked when the fire had occurred. He said, "About this time, yesterday" (2 P. M.).

H. H. U.—How did it start?

Korean—By the soldiers.

H. H. U.—Were many people burned or hurt?

Korean—The soldiers killed all the Christians who were in the church.

H. H. U.—What were they in the church on a Tuesday afternoon for?

Korean—Why, the soldiers came and ordered all the Christian men to gather in the church.

H. H. U.—Were there women in the church too?

Korean—No; the women were told not to come.

H. H. U.—Well, after the Christians gathered in the church what happened?

Korean—The soldiers fired on them and also used their "Knives" (swords and bayonets) and then set fire to the church

H. H. U.—How did the other houses catch?

Korean—Some caught from the church and others, on the other side, where the wind did not carry the flames, were set on fire by the soldiers.

H. H. U.—How is it you are alive?

Korean—I am not a Christian, and only the Christians were ordered to gather.

H. H. U.—Your house also was burnt?

Korean—Yes; there are the ruins (pointing).

H. H. U.—But there are a few houses left, how about those?

Korean—Those stood by themselves.

H. H. U.—About how many were killed in the church?

Korean—About thirty.

I then left this man and walked over to another group. Here there were several young women with babies at the breast and old women and a young boy about 19 or 20.

These people were Christians and knew Dr. Noble of the N. Methodist Mission, in whose district this church was. I asked the same or nearly the same questions, and got the same answers, as to time, method, number of killed, the setting of the fire, etc., etc. I asked the young man how he happened to be alive, and he replied that he had been away gathering wood on the hills and had returned at night to find all his friends and male relations dead and buried under the flaming ruins of the church. These people showed us where the church had stood, and we went down and found another corpse, which was also photographed. The other bodies were still under the ruins of the church.

The people were absolutely destitute, here and there a few household goods had been snatched from the flames, but none of the little groups seemed to have more than a very small bowl of rice or grain for all the survivors, and they said that most of them had lost their grain, seeds for the coming year, and everything including domestic animals, on which they are very dependent. We bid good-by to this group after taking their picture, and walked through the village to one of the houses that was still standing. Here our owner was a very old man who said that his house stood alone and had not caught and had not been set because he was not a Christian. His account of the

event tallied in every way with that of the others. He also did not know how many had been killed, but also put the number at about 30.

After taking a few more photos we returned to the rikishas and started back to the town. The rikisha coolies offered to take us to another place, about three miles further on, Suchone, where the same thing had happened a few days before. They volunteered that about fifteen places had been burnt, in most cases Christian centers. This tallied with other stories, and with reports brought up to Seoul to the missionaries in charge of the district. The soldiers had been brought in by auto about two weeks or ten days before and the first villages had been burnt at that time. The chief of police had reported that the trouble had been over some time, and we heard no accusations that there had been any violence on the part of the Koreans in this village which we visited. The police claim that violence had been committed in other places. We bade good-by to the police and returned to Seoul by auto as we had come, reaching Seoul about 5:30 P. M.

It will be understood that as I was born in this country I can be absolutely sure as to the conversations with the Koreans, and, of course, of the things which I saw. The Japanese conversation, however, I only followed by words here and there, such as "fire, riot, small, no, yes, bridge, road, auto," etc.

## **Exhibit XXI**

### **ADMISSIONS BY GOVERNOR GENERAL HASEGAWA (Japan Advertiser)**

April 27th, 1919.

Special to the "Japan Advertiser":

Seoul, April 25.—The Governor General of Korea denounces the harsh measures taken by some of his subordinates, and some of these, guilty of one of the worst atrocities reported, have already been subjected to appropriate punishment.

The Governor General yesterday received a delegation of prominent missionaries who had visited certain Korean villages which had been burned by soldiers this month. After listening carefully to their description of their investigation, he replied

that their statements of what had occurred were true, and that it was to be deplored.

### **Must Not Be Repeated**

The ones responsible had been punished, and strict orders had been sent throughout the peninsula forbidding further acts of this kind. His hearers might rest assured, he declared, and might assure other foreigners, that there would be no recurrence of such happenings.

The Governor General added that at any time that the missionaries had anything important to discuss, they could lay it before him personally.

The Governor General's assurance that these harsh, repressive measures by subordinate officers were not countenanced and would not be tolerated by the government is most gratifying.

### **Aid for Sufferers**

A committee appointed by a representative meeting of the foreign community waited on Governor Matsunaga to ascertain if they could assist in relieving the sufferers from the late trouble. The Governor outlined what the government was doing, and said that private Japanese had also contributed. He was willing to receive foreign contributions, which he would distribute and personally give account for. After thanking the Governor, the committee withdrew to report to the central committee.

### **Atrocity of First Magnitude**

The facts reported to the Governor General and referred to in the above special cable to "The Japan Advertiser" from its Seoul correspondent deal with an atrocity of the first magnitude, the particulars of which have reached Tokyo.

The missionaries who investigated were in a party of ten, who visited several villages which had been burned by the Japanese gendarmes and soldiers, the villagers being driven out of their homes and not permitted to take with them anything whatever of value. All they owned was destroyed, and the villagers, young infants and old men and women, have been hiding in the hills, afraid to return to the site of their former homes, and without shelter, food or covering for their bodies at night. Among these refugees in the hills are some wounded



ones, whose wounds have perforce gone untended, with many cases of blood poisoning setting in.

### Gathered Victims Together

In the course of their investigation, the searchers for facts reached one village where the little church had been destroyed by fire. The gendarmes and soldiers, marching into this village, had summoned the men of the village to attend a meeting in the church, where they were told certain orders would be read to them. They gathered in the building, some fifty or more.

As soon as the men had all been gathered together, the soldiery opened fire upon them through the open windows, after having surrounded the building. Volley after volley was poured into the gathering, until the floor was covered with moaning heaps of dead and wounded men.

To complete their work, the surviving women of the village told the missionaries, the soldiery entered the building and bayoneted all the men whom the bullets had not killed, while two women who had approached the building to learn the fate of their husbands were likewise bayoneted and their bodies thrown among those of the men. Then kerosene was poured upon the dead and the bodies and the church building consumed by fire.

When the advance guard of the investigating party reached this place, there were two bodies still left in the smoking ruins, the others having been raked out and disposed of out of sight.

This is the report, in part, the missionary party has made to the Governor General.

## Exhibit XXII

### THE MASSACRE AND BURNING OF VILLAGES

(Correspondence in The Japan Advertiser, April 29th, 1919)

#### The Burning of Cheamni

The Advertiser correspondent, under date of April 20th, says:

"For some time past I have been hearing persistent rumors of the burning of entire villages and the more or less complete wiping out of the inhabitants. Latterly these reports came from a district lying 15 or 20 miles west of the large town of Suigen,

on the Seoul-Fusan Railroad. It was difficult to obtain the exact name of the places said to be burnt, but finally word was received from people coming from the district that the village of Soo Chon had been wiped out by soldiers.

"Mr. Curtice of the American Consulate asked me if I was willing to make one of a party which would attempt to go through by automobile, and find, if possible, the truth regarding the rumor, and the village of Soo Chon in particular. Mr. Underwood, who was born in the country, and as a missionary has made a very careful study of the language and speaks it with great fluency, was engaged with his car to drive us there and act as interpreter for the party. As a mechanic and assistant in case of accidents we also took a Chinese chauffeur.

"We left the Consulate on Wednesday, April 16th. Our route was along the main highway from Seoul to Suwon (Suigen), which parallels the railway. Passing through this ancient walled city we continued on the old highway, which in historical interest and appearance can be compared to the Tokaido of Japan, until we came to the town of Uoan (Ooan), on the railroad line, and here we turned sharply from our southerly course to one due west.

"The road, which was marked on the map as third class, in no way exceeded our expectations, and the fifteen miles that we covered before abandoning the car for rikishas was full of incidents connected with narrow, rotten bridges, good driving, and lucky escapes.

### Smoke Still Rising

"About noon we drew up on the slope of a hill, at the foot of which lay a large town, which, according to our reckoning, should be the market town of Parang-Chang, from which our destination, Soo Chon, lay distant three miles further. Mr. Underwood went to a group of farm houses near where we had stopped to learn whether our supposition was correct and whether the people could give us any confirmation of the burning of Soo Chon. The farmers said that the town before us was Perang-Chang, where the police office was, and that Soo Chon, which was three miles further on, had been burnt. Pointing to a cloud of thin smoke rising from behind a hill about a mile distant from the market town, we asked what it meant."

"That," was the reply, "is a village called Cheamni, which the soldiers burnt yesterday at a little after midday."

"A question as to the reason of its being burnt elicited the statement that there was a Christian church in the village, and many Christians. To a question the farmer replied that he was not a Christian and told us what was told him, but that he and the people thereabout kept very close to their houses lest they should be suspected of sympathizing with the sufferers.

"After a brief lunch we drove down to the market town, where we found the only bridge entering the place would not bear the car, so we started on foot past the police station, which was just on the other side, and in front of which was drawn up a squad of about sixteen soldiers of the 78th Regiment, under command of non-coms. They allowed us to pass by without comment, but shortly came running after us and took us to the police station.

### " All Quiet at Present "

"Here the police officer in charge received Mr. Curtice's card and asked us to be seated. Mr. Curtice talked to the officer in charge, starting with the formal conversation usual in such cases, and leading up to the question of our desire to obtain rikishas and continue our journey on to Soo Chon. The question was asked him if there was any trouble in the district, and he replied by saying all was quiet at present, though there had been a demonstration in the market town of Parang-Chang some time before. Asked what the smoke over the hill was, he replied that it was a small fire that occurred yesterday.

"The probability of our visiting the place, which lay on the way to Soo Chon, was mentioned, and no objection was raised, only surprise that we should trouble about visiting the scene of a small fire, the implication being of greater ones further on. A Korean policeman was sent into the market with us, and we took the rikishas he secured, and went out on the road about a mile to where a small trail led over to the smoking hamlet. Here we left the rikishas and proceeded on foot.

"When we got the place, which had been a village of about forty houses, just under the lee of a low hill, we found only four or five standing. All the rest were smoking ruins. We passed along the path, which ran along the front of the village length-

wise, and in about the middle we came on a compound surrounded by burnt poplars, which was filled with glowing ashes. It was here that we found a body frightfully burned and twisted, either of a young man or a woman. This place we found later was the Christian church, and on coming down from another direction on our return I found a second body, evidently that of a man, also badly burned, lying just outside the church compound. The odor of burned flesh in the vicinity of the church was sickening.

"We proceeded to the end of the village and climbed the hill, where we found several groups of people huddled under little straw shelters, with a few of their pitiful belongings about them. They were mostly women, some old, others young mothers with babes at breast, but all sunk in the dull apathy of abject misery and despair.

#### Gather Christians for Massacre

"Talking to them in their own language and with sympathy, Mr. Underwood soon won the confidence of several and got the story of what happened from different groups, and in every case these stories tallied in the essential facts. The day before we arrived, soldiers came to the village, some time in the early afternoon, and ordered all the male Christians to gather in the church. When they had so gathered, to a number estimated to be thirty by our informers, the soldiers opened fire on them with rifles and then proceeded into the church and finished them off with sword and bayonets. After this they set fire to the church, but as the direction of the wind and the central position of the church prevented the upper houses catching, soldiers fired these houses individually, and after a time left.

"As we passed down the ruined village, returning to our rikishas, we came on the last house of the village, which was standing intact, and entered in conversation with the owner, a very old man. He attributed the safety of his house to its being slightly removed, and to a vagary of the wind. He was alive because he was not a Christian and had not been called into the church. The details of his story of the occurrence tallied exactly with the others, as to what had happened.

"We found that our rikisha men had followed us, leaving their vehicles on the main road. Their surliness and reserve

was gone and they volunteered the information that, while they were only rikisha men living in the market town, yet they would confirm what the people had told us. Further they could take us in rikishas to the town of Soo Chon, only a short 10 li (3 miles) away. It undoubtedly had been burned, as we could see for ourselves many more towns had been burned; they said, in that district, fifteen in all that they knew of.

### Afraid to Bury Their Dead

"We had seen, heard and smelled enough to confirm all of the reports that have been trickling into Seoul from native sources in this district, and as we had a perilous road to travel before we reached safety for our heavy car on the main highway, we turned back to the market town, sad and sick at the thought of the miserable people camped on the hillside, afraid even to go to their dead. We were met outside the police station by the officer we had seen on entrance, and, telling that as the rikishas were poor, the road bad, and the afternoon waning, we would return to Seoul at once.

"This particular police office is not connected by telephone or telegraph and the road is little used, so the surprise of our sudden appearance from Seoul in a large car, coupled with Mr. Curtice's diplomacy, was what gained us the privilege of seeing the result of the military method of repression and of talking to the people without interference. A remarkable fact was, that on the journey coming and going to the main highway, we met only a couple of natives travelling, and very little work in the fields, except in immediate proximity to the houses, the more remote fields lying deserted, which was unusual at this time of the year, and at variance with conditions along the main highway."

### Visit of British Consul

Under date of April 24th, the same correspondent writes:

"The British Consul had an interview with the Government after the first trip to Cheamni, and mentioned the result of our investigation, at the same time expressing a desire to go down himself with certain of his nationals who were interested in mission work.



"The party in the motor car consisted of Mr. Royds, the British Consul; Dr. Hardy, of the Canadian Mission; Dr. Gale, myself, and extra chauffeur. In addition to the motor car two motorcycles accompanied us (with side cars), carrying Dr. Noble, who is superintendent of the work in that district, Rev. Cable, Rev. Mr. Billings, Rev. Mr. Beck, and Rev. Mr. Herron Smith, who is in charge of the Japanese work in Korea for the Methodist Church.

"We took a different route, where the bridges were in better condition, and arrived at the market town of Parang-Chang about noon and parked our machines in front of the police station and proceeded at once through the market town toward Cheamni. There were a number of police in front of the station, but they said nothing to us, but fell in behind and followed us to the burnt village, evidently having been warned of our coming.

#### Clearing Away the Debris

"Here we found a large gang of coolies cleaning away the ruins, preparatory to having the houses rebuilt. All the burnt bodies had been removed and great haste was being made in cleaning the place up, which was in decided contrast to villages we visited later, and which had been destroyed early in the month.

"We photographed freely, without interference, but whenever we started to talk to the natives a policeman would saunter up and the Korean would freeze up. Nothing was said to them in our presence but they were in wholesome fear of what might happen later if they were seen talking to us. However, our party was a large one and we divided up and went in different directions, and those familiar with the language obtained many interviews, and everything confirmed the first report sent you. as to the hour and method of assembling the men in the church and exterminating them and then setting fire to the village.

"Careful questioning of some women in a house removed from this village gave the number of Christian men killed as twelve, whose names were secured, in addition to which two women who went to find out what was happening to their husbands were killed, one a woman over forty and the other nineteen. These may have been the bodies we saw outside the



church on the first day, this supposition being possible as they were outside the ruins. The remainder of the men killed in the church were members of the Chyong Do Kio and were said to be twenty-five in number.

### Occupied House Fired

"We next started walking to the village of Soo Chon, three miles away, which had been the objective of my first visit. We found that this village had been burnt either on the night of the fifth or the morning of the sixth. The story told to our party was that on that night the people were awakened by finding their houses on fire. As soon as they ran out they were struck with swords or bayoneted or shot—none were killed but several wounded, and we found one man whose arm had been laid open with a sword, and who, from lack of attention, would probably die of infection. The British Consul afterward obtained a promise from the police in the market town that he should be sent to the hospital at Suigen. In this village a church and about thirty houses had been burnt, but no attempt had been made to clean it up, though it occurred early in the month. We then proceeded to a very small hamlet just over the hill, where four or five houses had been burnt.

"As we returned along the road homeward I was somewhat in the rear and a Korean appeared suddenly from a bypath and asked me to go to the village of Kei Rong Kohl, five li (1½ miles) away, where seventeen out of nineteen houses had been burned. This I was unable to do as it was growing late and our party was well ahead. I overtook a Korean who had been following our party as a spy for the police. He denied knowing of such a place, but finding I knew all about it and could speak the vernacular, he admitted it and confirmed what we had been told regarding Cheamni, particularly the hour, which is very important, for there had been a report among the Japanese of a town being burnt through the upsetting of a lamp by Koreans wishing to avoid arrest during the night.

"We were told of a certain place in this district where nine burned villages can be seen from an elevation nearby. We had seen enough to confirm the reports previously received and returned to Seoul.

"The officials in the Government expressed to the Consular

officials the greatest indignation and surprise at these outrages and promised immediate relief to sufferers.

"A meeting of foreigners was held to see if relief work could be undertaken, and a committee appointed to wait on the officials. Appreciation was expressed by them and the matter is going through official routine. Many officials have visited the district, particularly Cheamni, and in that point I believe active steps for relief are being taken. I think the exposure of what happened at Cheamni will put a stop to this sort of repression."

### Exhibit XXIII

#### AN INCIDENT IN NORTH KOREA

On Sunday afternoon, April 20th, 1919, the following occurred, at the village of Nong Tuk, Sinkai County, Shanghai Province. The Myen Chang (town magistrate) a Japanese, with two Korean police officers, came to the village from the Myen, about five li distant. They went to the house of Song Chang Sik, a local preacher in charge of this circuit, but he and his wife had gone to another church on the circuit for the Easter services. The officers beat his old mother, frightened the seven children, broke the water jars, dishes and furniture, and destroyed his books. The local leader of this church is a fine young man from a well-to-do family, who has been to the Bible School in Seoul. He had been arrested at another place the first of March. The officers went now to his house and beat his old grandfather, cutting a gash in his head. They also beat the teacher of the day school, and smashed up things in other Christian homes. They broke every window in the church, with the lamps and stoves, and took the pulpit, the Bibles and the hymn books into the church yard, where they burned them. They said such low-down people as the Christians had no right to live, and would all be run out of that region.

There has been no demonstration in this village. None of the Christians here took part in any demonstrations for independence in other places. Some days before, at the Myen (Township Headquarters), where there are no Christians, there had been a demonstration by the non-Christians, of whom six had been shot to death on the spot and many others wounded.

## **Exhibit XXIV**

### **STORY OF GOVERNMENT SCHOOLGIRL WHO WAS SABRED**

On March 1st, 1919, at 2 o'clock, we started at Pagoda Park, going up to the Taihan Gate, where we shouted "Mansei" with all our might. From there we came to Kangwha Gate and shouted again, going out the West Gate to the French Consulate and the American Consulate where we once more shouted "Mansei."

Coming in through the Little West Gate we again went to the Taihan Gate, from thence we went to Pan Chung Tong (where there is a police station). There came out mounted gendarmes trying to stop our course, but we pressed forward to the Government General Offices, and there the Kotang Koan (high official) came out with his sword, beating all in his way, and he struck me with his sword on the back, making a wound three inches long. The force of the blow threw me down, after which he stamped on my head with his foot, leaving me senseless for about twenty minutes.

When I came to, I arose, to find my tooth broken, nose and lips bruised and cut, and blood everywhere. My shoulder had a three-inch cut, and my leg, which had been struck several times, was black and blue.

## **Exhibit XXV**

### **KWAK SAN AND TYUNGJU**

The Kwak San Church was burned yesterday morning (April 25th, 1919), and the Christians prevented from going in to put it out. The atrocious tortures of the prisoners in Tyungju are worthy of African savages and barbarians.

## **Exhibit XXVI**

### **PART OF AN EXTENDED REPORT—APRIL 24, 1919**

#### **A. Methods of Suppression.**

The following paragraph can only be a summary of the methods which have been used in the suppression of nationalistic demonstrations. Every statement is supported by signed affi-

davits deposited with representatives of the United States Government. This must of necessity be a generalization, since conditions varied somewhat in different parts of the country, and the course of events was not always the same.

It must be borne in mind that the demonstrations began without violence of any kind on the part of the Koreans. The movement, as announced, was to be one of peaceful and orderly expression of national opinion, and in the initial public meetings violence was specifically forbidden, and later special notices were circulated cautioning against the use of violence. The demonstrations, involving as they did, thousands of people, were remarkable exhibitions of self-control. It is not to be wondered at that later on, when the crowds were enraged by violence of the police and soldiers, there should be retaliation of some sort in a few cases.

At the first outbreak the police seemed nonplussed at the apparently senseless audacity of the cheering demonstrators. It is said that on the first day in some places the police even joked with the crowd. But when the people refused to be permanently dispersed the mood of the officials changed to irritation and anger and they entered upon a campaign of enraged brutality, police, gendarmes, soldiers and firemen (armed with pole hooks) kicking, striking, and beating men, women and children indiscriminately; using gun butts, swords (in the scabbard at first but later bare and bloody), clubs and freight hooks (inflicting ghastly wounds). As the demonstrations continued swords and bayonets were freely used, and after the first day, as the wave of demonstration spread out through the country districts, soldiers and gendarmes fired on crowds without warning, shooting indiscriminately in the direction of the cheering whenever the cry of "Mansai" was raised, killing and wounding at random. It was inevitable that there should be retaliation. Gendarmerie windows have been broken and gendarmes have been killed. A notable instance was at Morak, where the gendarmes fired into a crowded market, killing several. The crowd pursued the gendarmes and killed four.

In this connection Col. Mayeda, who is second in command of the gendarmes in Chosen, claims that up to March 30th the police reports indicated thirty-eight places in which police and gendarmes had used arms, and that in all these cases the

Koreans began violence, that the police and gendarmes were few in number, usually only three or four against hundreds and even thousands of Koreans, and that it was necessary to protect themselves and government property from destruction. It was his representation that no more violence was used than was necessary. The sufficient answer to this is that in all cases which have come under foreign observation the Korean demonstrators refrained from violence until angered by the wanton cruelty of the police, and that so far from violent measures becoming increasingly necessary recent acts of wholesale slaughter and burning of villages have taken place even after Korean demonstrations had ceased and the crowd dispersed. The police may regard this as punitive—it cannot be justified under the plea of necessity or self-defense. Moreover, in every instance where police and foreigners both report on the same cases the police reports are invariably falsified and unreliable. We can therefore place no reliance upon their statements in regard to the course of events elsewhere.

Evidence that the police excuse of Korean attack upon the police station is invalid, is found in the fact that in at least one instance the dead Koreans lay in all parts of the city where they fell, none near the gendarmerie, but on the spot where they had been cheering in unresisting groups when fired upon by the gendarmes. There are photographs to substantiate this in the case of Andong, where the dead were reported to be thirty, and where a missionary himself counted seven left lying by the roadside in widely separated parts of the city, fourteen hours after the shooting.

Official records from March 1 to April 11 show that nine police and gendarmes have been killed and 109 wounded, while among the Koreans 361 have been killed and 860 wounded. The report of police casualties is doubtless accurate; that of the Korean casualties falls far short of the true figures and only takes cognizance of those officially known to be dead and wounded, and does not include those killed and wounded by indiscriminate shooting in the dark, down village streets. Individual cases reported in the Government press have totalled more than 600 killed, and these do not include more recent shootings.

The process of arrest at any time of excitements and disturb-



ances is apt to be accompanied with more or less violence. It has been the gratuitous and unjustifiable brutality of officials which has most impressed itself upon observers here. It is not merely the roughing and beating of those who are being arrested, but the actions of those who, without making any attempt at arrest, desperately beat any whom they meet in the road without explanation or inquiry in a general campaign of terrorism. Complaint or remonstrance on the part of Koreans means more severe treatment and even shooting. Japanese civilians have taken part in this work as well, with the encouragement of the police.

A peculiarly revolting feature of police methods is their treatment of women. Their laying violent hands on women is the thing that most often arouses the anger of the Koreans, whose worst term of execration "barbarians," is called forth by these actions. Women have been stripped and beaten both before and during police examination in police stations, in their own homes, and in the open, usually wantonly subjected to insult and indignity, simply to indulge the brutal propensities of the police or soldiers. The treatment to which educated young women have been subjected appears in appended documents.

Since the coming in of fresh troops and the inauguration of more severe methods of repression, as announced by the Government, increasing numbers of reports come in regarding the violation of women by soldiers. The absence of this form of violence in the past, the sudden appearance of such reports, coincident to the new orders issued, give verisimilitude to the reports, aside from the fact that they come from trustworthy sources. Complaint made to the police in regard to this has been met with beating and with the statement that such charges must not be brought against servants of the Government.

Treatment of the wounded has been most cruel. In many cases they have not been allowed to go to hospitals. Those brought to mission hospitals have often been smuggled in secretly by their friends. Our physicians can testify to the fact that wounded men have been taken out of hospitals and beaten, and that others have been taken out of hospitals to prison before being discharged by the doctors as cured.

At the Mission Hospital in Pyeng Yang the doctors were



told that they must not report patients as having died of gunshot wounds, but that they must say they died a natural death.

The jails, of course, overflowed from the first day. Prisoners in most cases received brutal treatment, though there were notable exceptions. Wholesale arrests have followed from the first outbreak. Examinations have been made as rapidly as possible, and considerable numbers have been discharged after detention ranging from one day to six weeks. In some cases girls and women have received considerate treatment in prison, in others quite the reverse; the girls arrested in Seoul complain uniformly of the brutality of the women jailers and police officials. The whole number reported under arrest varies from 10,000 to 40,000.

Trials according to Japanese law have been proceeding throughout the past weeks, the Koreans for the most part making no defense, but asserting their innocence of any other act than an expression of their desire for independence, which they do not disavow. Sentences have been imposed, ranging from six months to three years at hard labor, while in numerous cases flogging (which cannot be administered legally to Japanese) has been administered with from fifteen to ninety blows.

As was indicated above, firemen, armed with clubs and pole-hooks, were in many places given free hand to do what they wished to beat, scatter and terrorize the crowds; in other places civilians apparently (possibly the reservists) were armed with clubs and hooks and turned loose upon the Koreans. It must be constantly borne in mind that these Korean crowds were unarmed, the people having been disarmed nine years ago.

The police paraded bodies of armed thugs (Japanese in Korean clothing), through the streets to indicate what might be expected. Rumor freely circulated that missionaries were to be beaten by them. Government officials told a newspaper correspondent and an American official that if they carried lighted cigarettes at night they would be safe from molestation, since they would not be mistaken for missionaries, while a missionary was warned by friendly officials to keep off the streets at night. These thugs have since been withdrawn, owing, it is said, to a protest by the American Consul General.

The Korean demonstrations continued for over a month and have now almost entirely ceased. The soldiers in the country

districts, however, are increasingly violent, using fire and sword and terrifying the populace.

## B. Government Attitude Toward the Christian Church in Suppressing the Revolt

In speaking of the "Government Attitude" we are using an inferential phrase. Officially the Government attitude toward the Church is that of religious toleration, and Christians are presumably to receive the same treatment as other citizens involved in the same disturbance. As a matter of fact, however, the Government's real attitude must normally be inferred from the action of the Government's officers and agents, the police, gendarmes, and soldiers.

Ever since Japan first came into control in the peninsula the existence of the Protestant Christian Church has offered a problem to the Government. The reasons are not far to seek—it is primarily the problem which the church from its very beginning offered to autocratic governments. It existed in the days of Rome. It stands out in particular prominence here in Chosen because here we have an instance where the church is the strongest organization among the people whom the invading nation is seeking to control and denationalize and assimilate.

Dr. A. J. Brown, in his pamphlet on the "Conspiracy Case" of 1912 (p. 7), makes the following statement: "The Japanese desire to control everything within their dominions, as foreign business men have learned to their cost. This is particularly true in Korea, where they deem it necessary to their plans to be absolute masters. Now the Japanese see in the Korean Church numerous and powerful organizations which they do not control."

There is a natural solidarity of Christians (especially under our form of church polity) which they themselves have come to appreciate, and which has been an obvious source of anxiety to the Government. The whole attitude of the Government toward the Church in this present crisis is largely conditioned by a recognition of this solidarity and unity. A military government without experimental knowledge of Christianity, not appreciating fully its primary spiritual aim nor able to estimate properly the strength of the spiritual forces and factors involved, but fearing them, would naturally view with concern the fact

that the largest and most thoroughly organized member of the body politic embraced at the same time the most enlightened and progressive portions of the populations.

Admiral Mahan, in a letter to Dr. Brown, quoted in the pamphlet referred to above, says ("Conspiracy Case," p. 21):

"The suspicion excited by Christian gatherings is not only natural but has been characteristic of non-Christian governments from the time of Rome. Sometimes it is well grounded, as in the case of the English Roman Catholics in the days of Elizabeth and James the First. Men bound together by close sympathies of vital religion are in a state very favorable to combination for other objects, as, for instance, patriotic——"

The Government apprehension of the power of church organization is clearly witnessed by the encouragement given to the propagation of Christianity by the Congregational Church, which has a form of polity devoid of unity and integration, and therefore easier to control. It is under purely Japanese control.

Presbyterian organization, with its self-government and unity, and Methodist organization, with its unity and its added relation to a foreign ecclesiastical body of great power are both obnoxious to the Government.

Another reason for the Government's suspicion of the church in Chosen is the fact that foreign influence exercises great power there. (It must be admitted that while technically autonomous the native church was dominated for a long period by foreign influence. But the church has rapidly come into its own, in its assemblies being able and ready on occasion to out-vote the foreigners, and this very year marked a movement, initiated by missionaries, for their actual withdrawal from any other than advisory participation in church assemblies). The existence of this foreign influence has, beyond question, been an added irritation to the authorities, who felt that it was an obstacle in the way of the Japanization they wished to effect. A former Governor General is reported to have said, "We can't have the missionaries here trying to make little Americans out of the Koreans." The remark was not justified, but it indicated sufficiently the official thought.

The immediate effect of the present disturbance, therefore, a disturbance in which Christians have taken a prominent part, has been to confirm and strengthen the suspicion which already

existed against Christianity. The fact that it has been in no sense a purely Christian uprising, and the further fact that it was not purely Christian in origin, will not offset the consideration that Christianity has apparently proved itself to be hostile to the Government. This interpretation of Christianity on the part of the Government must be borne in mind as an explanation of the present treatment of the church. Naturally the Government has issued no statement to this effect, but actions of officials speak louder than Government proclamations. The Vice-Governor of Choong Chung Province, a Japanese and therefore the real executive of the Province, called in prominent Koreans, including some Christians, and in a public meeting advised people to have nothing to do with Christianity, which was a Western religion, and not adapted to Orientals. Police officials are urging the same thing everywhere. The Procurator, in making his case against Mr. Mowry at the public trial, said: "It is impossible not to suspect Christianity in the matter."

From the very first day of the demonstrations the officials have paid more attention to Christian participation than to that of any other class. Arrests of those actually taking part in demonstrations and made upon the spot were naturally made without discrimination, but in the campaign of general arrests which followed throughout the country, Christians have been singled out for marked discrimination, even before demonstrations have taken place, in many instances.

Throughout the country the police immediately began to arrest pastors, elders, and other church officers. Some of these have been released after weeks of imprisonment and examination. Sentences against others are being daily announced, even in the case of men who took no part in the demonstrations, ranging from six months to three years of penal servitude. Of course no apology is intended for those who took part in the uprising deliberately and expecting the consequences. We are emphasizing the fact of the wholesale arrest and beating of Christians simply because they are Christians. In some places the men and women of the village were called together, all those who admitted they were Christians were maltreated or arrested and the others sent away. Wayfarers met by soldiers and gendarmes are asked whether they are Christians, and beaten and abused on the admission of the fact. Korean Christians

remaining in the villages are given all sorts of announcements by local police and gendarmes. They are told that Christianity is to be exterminated, that all Christians are to be shot, that meetings are to be forbidden. It has been stated that Chunt Kyo is to be completely abolished because it is a native religion, but that Christianity, because of its foreign affiliations, while not being abolished, will be reduced by legislative restrictions to half its present size. There is of course no uniformity in these announcements, but they are all evidently part of a campaign of intimidation. That they are not groundless statements is evidenced by the fact that nineteen churches have been partly or wholly wrecked by soldiers; bells, furniture, Bibles, and hymn-books being smashed or burned. Seven other churches have been burned to the ground. We have no record of churches of other Missions involved except as noted below.

The effect of this treatment varies in different localities. In some places worship is entirely suspended, church officers not under arrest are in hiding, and the congregations are scattered. In some places church meetings have been forbidden; in others the services are continued, but with reduced attendance and with police detectives and spies present; in still others the disturbances have had no effect on the congregational gatherings, and many new enquirers are present attracted doubtless by the reputation for patriotism which Christians have acquired. It may be said that the local officials are always ready with some absurd explanation of the destruction of church property such as that the Christians burn their own churches to show their abandonment of Christianity or that non-Christians burn them in hostility to Christians.

Since the bringing in of additional troops from Japan things have grown incredibly worse. These troops were brought in with the avowed purpose of "using severe measures," and interpreted in the light of facts this means a campaign of fire and sword and devastation, the burning of whole villages accompanied in some instances with the massacre of inhabitants in the most approved style of Hun and Turk. At present writing attention is centered in a group of villages less than fifty miles from the capital. Two weeks after the first reports of village burning reached Seoul, investigation was made by foreigners. A party went to find the burned villages, and came on one



still smoking. It had been burned the day before. At this village, called Chey Am Ni, the soldiers called the village men together in the Methodist Church, about thirty men in a village of forty houses. Both Christians and non-Christians were present. The soldiers then fired on those present to kill all possible and then burned the church building over the heads of dead and wounded. Six men broke through the wall of the burning building and tried to escape, but were bayoneted outside. Two women who had joined their husbands were shot with the others. The village was then burned to the ground. The facts are personally attested by representatives from the British and American Consulates, members of the Red Cross Society and of the Patriotic League of Britons Overseas. Photographs were taken of ruins and burned and bayoneted bodies. These outrages had been going on for a period of two weeks and continued in that district till the very day of the unexpected investigation by foreigners. Four other devastated villages in the district have been visited, and reports from eleven others have been received. The same thing is being reported from other parts of Korea, and though the reports might have been received with incredulity under other circumstances, nothing is now too horrible to be believed. In all instances the hostility of the soldiers and gendarmes and police is directed against Christians. Christians in districts adjoining the devastated region have been told that the same thing would happen to them, and over large areas the people are sleeping out in the hills without shelter at night because they dare not stay in their villages, which may be burned over their heads at midnight and the inhabitants massacred.

In one village the Christians were ordered to tear down the church building and told that unless they signed an agreement not to be Christians, they would be arrested as insurgents. Profession of Christianity is regarded as equivalent to confession of revolutionary purpose.

In a recent issue of an American church magazine is a statement to the effect that "the Japanese have a feeling of respect for Americans akin to worship!" The author of that article should spend a few moments in the presence of the servants of the Government of Chosen and learn their opinion of everything American and Christian.



In parts of the country where the reign of terror is being maintained people dare not walk from one village to another for fear of being shot, and the men dare not work in the fields. Frightfulness of another kind is employed. Inhabitants of villages are lined up to be shot and then sent away till another day, when the process is repeated. Even though not actually shot, on these occasions the people have the instances of massacre and devastation before their eyes and never know when the threat will be carried into effect. And always the animus is directed against the Christians.

As a result of the publicity given to these nearest outrages the Government is taking relief measures for the people of these four villages and promises help and farm implements and seed. They are not able to restore the dead farmers to life, however, and nothing would have been done if the foreigners had not raised a storm of indignation. Nothing had been done in the case of villages similarly devastated two weeks before. The Japanese excuse is that the people were called together for instructions, and in their efforts to escape kicked over a lamp and started the conflagration! Which leaves the massacres unexplained, but is a sample of the average police explanation accepted by the Japanese.

We cannot go into further details in this report. The accompanying documents may be examined. But it cannot be doubted that a persistent campaign is being carried on against Christianity under the plea of suppressing revolt.

Villifying, beating old men and little children, breaking up meetings by armed officers and men, wholesale arrests, brutal treatment of those under arrest, threats and intimidation and massacre are all being employed to break the spirit of Christians and to prevent the spread of Christianity. These statements are supported by photographs, signed statements and narratives on file.

## THE OUTLOOK

April 24, 1919.

The uncertainty as to the outcome of the present disturbances is increased by the fact that the Government of Chosen finds critics of the administration in the ranks of its own civil

officials and in the Liberal parties in the Imperial Government. Investigators are not slow to criticize what they characterize as the stupid policy of the military regime, while the leading journals of Japan are to the extent of their meager information joining in a protest. The "Peninsular Magazine," a monthly published in Seoul by a Japanese but for the Koreans and in the Korean language, had its April number confiscated, further publication prohibited, and the editor arrested because it published a long editorial criticizing the Government-General's handling of the situation.

Except for rumors to the effect that the student class in Japan are beginning to favor Korean liberty, there is of course no one among the Japanese who favors independence for the Koreans, though the more advanced, like Viscount Kato, have come out in favor of autonomy; but many of them feel that the military administration ought to give place to the civil in the future, and that the military administration has made a failure in their colonial policy. As intimated above, right-minded Japanese in Japan proper do not approve of the government's extreme methods in Chosen, and are asking for a change.

It is possible that government reform may take place. A recent statement of Mr. Yamagata, the Administrator-General, is to the effect that "the agitation is deplorable, coming as it does **just on the eve** of government reforms" (the bold face is ours). But all officials seem to agree that the present uprising must be crushed before any reforms can be instituted, while the interpellations in the Diet in regard to the Korean situation seem to be a criticism of the administration for failing to keep order in the peninsula rather than a suggestion that the underlying causes of the disturbance be discovered and removed.

We must recognize that democratic tendencies are manifest in the Japanese Empire as well as in the rest of the world, and momentous events may occur at any time, even before this report reaches the Board. Only the day before yesterday two automobile loads of Japanese rushed through the streets of Seoul, shouting "Democracy Banzai." Some sixty arrests have been made in connection with the demonstration. Many and conflicting forces are at work to-day in Japan as well as Korea. But we must not forget the most obvious fact that unless there is some marked change in government policy or in the character

of the administration, or both, mission work in Chosen faces a period of great limitation and difficulty. There are grave problems ahead.

The Administrator General has just recently returned from a trip to Tokyo. It had been hoped that his return would mark the announcement of conciliatory measures; but on the contrary, the official announcement is to the effect that the "lenient" measures employed in the past will be exchanged for utmost rigor, and a new law has been promulgated by the Governor General making "any disturbance of the peace with a view to effecting a change of government" an offense punishable with ten years of penal servitude, and significantly and specifically including foreigners in the ruling.

The effect of the administration's Rehoboam policy at this time can only be conjectured, but there are those who feel justified in quoting a trite proverb, to the effect that "whom the gods would destroy they first make mad."

## Exhibit XXVII

### A PERSONAL LETTER

My dear Mr. —:

"I hardly know what to write. Things terribly upset these days. The country is still in the throes of revolution. The missionaries and Christians are suffering much. The Japanese as a nation do not like Christianity—it is too democratic. One of our missionaries is in jail. Things are in bad shape. I myself am on the 'black list' because of an article to the — Press. The editor nearly had his paper suppressed over it, and the government said they might need him later on. You see all papers in Japan and Korea are under government control.

"The poor Koreans are suffering terribly. I suppose fully 6,000 have been killed and thousands beaten—sixty to ninety cuts with a brutal rod. All they have done is shout 'Long live Korea!' In some places there has been violence, throwing of stones, etc., but not at first. The government up to the present has not done a thing but shoot and maim them. Of course it has told them to stop, but in no way has it come in touch with the leaders to see what could be done to stop this awful affair.

I am in disfavor because I have told government officials (and my article) that I believe in advanced reforms. I do not believe in immediate independence.

"I am sending this letter via Shanghai. Nothing can get out like this these days. Remember the trouble is we are under the heel of a militaristic government exactly like the German. I was caught by some soldiers on Sunday. They soon let me go. I was going to see a man who had been badly beaten by the police. It is all your life's worth to go into the country these days. Oh, Japan is cruel! Even the best Japanese Christians of course back their Empire. I know Japan now. Nationally aggressive, obtaining her ends at all costs; if Christianity and love suit her, they are used; if the foulest methods of Machiavelli are required, they are employed, and all is covered with a smiling lie. I know her, but it took me two years."

## Exhibit XXVIII

### A PERSONAL LETTER

April 30th, 1919.

Dear Mr. —:

Things are quiet in —, but there are still disturbances elsewhere. Nearly every day we see batches of prisoners from the country being brought to — for examination. Numerous churches have been burned by the military. The Northern Presbyterians report at least seven church structures and a large school destroyed in this way, and we know that the Southern Methodist and other Missions have had similar losses. The students in the higher schools have not returned to study so far. A number of our students in both colleges with which I am connected are still imprisoned.

A terrible thing happened at — about — miles from —. In a village there the men were ordered by the soldiers to go to the church on a Tuesday afternoon. About a dozen Christians and some twenty members of the Chundokyo responded. When they were in the church, the soldiers fired through the windows, killing and wounding the party. Then the church was set on fire. The flames set one-half of the village on fire, and the soldiers then set fire to the other half. All but three houses were destroyed. It is claimed that this was done

in retaliation for the killing of a gendarme, but so far as we can find out the gendarme was killed at quite a distance from this particular settlement. We have heard that the authorities have called the perpetrators to task, and have started in to rebuild the village as reparation.

## Exhibit XXIX

### A PERSONAL LETTER

Tokyo, April 23, 1919.

Dear Mr. —:

Mr. Mowry was arrested on April 4th and was detained in prison until the 19th inst., when he was sentenced to six months' imprisonment at hard labor, but was released on bail, pending the hearing of the appeal trial. The charge against Mr. Mowry was that of sheltering five Korean "criminals" and of allowing them to prepare seditious literature on his or on Dr. Moffett's premises. One of these Koreans was Mr. Mowry's secretary and all the others I think were student friends—one of them being a son of Rev. Kil Sun Choo of Pyengyang, who was one of the signers of the Independence Manifesto. At the trial Mr. Mowry admitted that these five men had each of them slept in his home on certain nights, but denied that he knew that the police were searching for them or that he knew that they were fleeing from the police, although he said he suspected it in regard to some of them. It might be said that Mr. Mowry has for years been in the habit of entertaining Korean friends—students and others—in his home in this way, and had entertained some of these men before. Mowry stated, however, that the police had not notified anyone that they were searching for these men and that he did not think it was wrong or would have been wrong unless he had known that the police did want them. Also it should be borne in mind that the mere fact that a man is a Christian Korean is sufficient these days to lead the police to desire to arrest and investigate him.

The trial came off on April 15th, no notice having been given either Mr. Mowry or Dr. Moffett, who was endeavoring to keep in touch with the case, until 2 P. M. of the fourteenth, when it was too late to secure a lawyer, as the nearest avail-



able lawyer lives in Seoul and the trial was to take place at 10 A. M. on the fifteenth. So the case went to trial without a lawyer. The public procurator asked for a sentence as above—the law allowing up to two years' imprisonment or a fine of Yen 200. The judge took the case under advisement until the nineteenth, and then pronounced judgment as asked by the procurator. By this time Dr. Moffett had engaged a Mr. Okobo to represent Mr. Mowry, and an appeal was filed and granted and Mr. Mowry was released on Yen 300 bail.

In the meantime, over here in Japan, Mr. ——— and I had been trying to engage Dr. F. Usawa, who was in charge of "The Conspiracy Case" with Dr. Hanai. On April 10th Mr. ——— left Tokyo for Nagasaki, where Dr. Usawa was engaged on a case, and there made a tentative arrangement with him. These two lawyers are said to be the best criminal lawyers in Japan, and Dr. Usawa, as you know, is a Christian, a member of Mr. Uemura's church. Dr. Usawa returned to Tokyo on the 15th and I met him on that day and again on the 22nd, yesterday, on his return from another case. At this second interview, I, acting on instructions from Chosen, definitely engaged Dr. Usawa to take charge of the case—in company with Mr. Okobo. Dr. Usawa thinks that he will be able to go to Chosen before the middle of May, and yesterday telegraphed to Mr. Okobo to try to get the case fixed for May 12th. I also urged Dr. Usawa to go as soon as possible and stay as long as he could because he ought to see for himself the conditions in the country. I had a very frank talk with him and told him some of the happenings we had witnessed personally. He said he would go to Chosen with an open mind and see all he could.

Mr. ———, after he met Dr. Usawa in Nagasaki, crossed over to Chosen. I, however, because it was necessary for someone to stay to perfect arrangements with Dr. Usawa and also because Mr. F. L. Brown is due here soon to make arrangements for the Tokyo World's Sunday School Convention, stayed on. At first it seemed that every avenue of approach to influential Japanese was blocked. However, within the last week a good many facts as to the real condition of affairs in Korea have begun to come out, even in Japan, as the enclosed clipping from the Japan Advertiser will indicate. This has led to a suspicion on the part of many influential Japanese that the censorship has prevented the real state of



affairs from being known; and it having been reported that missionaries from Korea are in Tokyo, I am beginning to receive invitations from a number of such men to meet them and tell them what the situation is from our viewpoint. This I am doing because it is the only means we have of bettering the terrible situation now obtaining. Already the Federated Council of Churches had decided to send two men to Chosen, one of whom is Mr. ———; the other is not decided. Also ——— and Dr. ——— have asked me to meet them on the 25th to talk over the situation and they say that they too will probably send over a delegation, some of whom will be members of the Diet. There are a good many encouraging signs that a change in public opinion in Japan, which has been fed with falsified reports, may be brought about.

April 26th, 1919.

Yesterday, as indicated above, I met Baron ——— and Dr. ———. There were present also Mr. ———, of the Japan Peace Society, and Mr. ———. We talked about two hours and I told them very frankly just what is occurring in Chosen. They were interested to the end and said that they felt that a delegation of prominent Japanese outside of Government circles should be sent over. Mr. ——— and I urged them to send this delegation as soon as possible. These two gentlemen were absolutely in ignorance of what is being done in Korea, and I think the conference did good. This morning I met Mr. ——— and talked with him for about an hour. His sympathies are wholly with the Koreans in their desire for greater liberties. He urged three things: First, that we should give the facts to the world. He said the Government would probably resent the publication of the facts, but that it was the only way to remedy the situation; second in connection with the publication of these facts, let the newspapers of New York, Paris and London point out that this situation has been brought about by the military regime, and let them urge Japan to change it; third, that if possible the American and British Governments ought to be approached to get them to bring pressure on Japan to change her policy in this respect. He urged me to speak to ———. In all these conferences we have declined to speak about the political side of the question and have tried to make very plain that we are not taking any part in that; but also we try to make very

plain that we feel that we do have a right to speak of the humanitarian side.

I feel repaid for coming, for another reason also—I have met so many just and fair-minded Japanese that I am forming a juster estimate of their character as a whole. If Japan could only throw off militarism there would be great hope for her.

April 30th, 1919.

Since writing you on the 23rd and 26th, events have taken place rapidly. The first is the admission by Count Hasegawa that atrocities have occurred in Chosen. I send you among other things two extracts from The Japan Advertiser, one under date of April 27th and one under date of April 29th, which will be self explanatory. All I would say in addition to the information that these articles contain is that such happenings have occurred in many other places in Chosen according to reports which have been brought to us by trustworthy Koreans. I enclose an account of one that is said to have occurred in the town of Maingsan, which is about 110 miles north of Pyengyang—we have a Christian church there and the report was brought to us by a Bible woman whom we know well and who is trustworthy. These are but examples, though the worst ones of which we know. On a smaller scale, however, the same thing has happened in numberless villages.

I have made some progress in the way of meeting influential Japanese and laying before them the true situation in Chosen. And I am greatly encouraged to find that they are as indignant and as horrified as anyone else when they do know the facts.

Kobe, May 17, 1919.

Our interview with an important member of the Government was at once more interesting and satisfactory. His attitude was most cordial and receptive, and though, of course, his official position made it impossible for him to give detailed statements regarding the Government's policy, he indicated with great clearness what that policy was regarding Chosen. The interview began by a statement on our part of our reasons for the belief that in suppressing the agitation in Korea a disproportionate amount of repression was being directed against Christianity; to a statement of what appeared to us to be some of the

underlying reasons why Christians had taken part in the movement and a statement of our apprehension regarding the future of Christian work in Korea, Mr. ——— replied to the effect that the Government had no intention of discriminating between Christians and non-Christians, but while there was some reason to believe that Christians had been particularly involved there were misunderstandings on both sides. He said the Government had been on the point of making reforms when the trouble broke out in Korea, and therefore there was nothing else to do but suppress it, after which the Government proposed to make definite reforms, which he was not at liberty to state in detail. He said the Government has no anti-Christian bias, but that lower officials often fail to convey the Government's ideas and to carry out orders in the proper manner. After quiet is restored mistaken and overzealous officials will be punished. He said that Koreans must be treated in every way as equals, with all rights accorded Japanese in the home country, but that this ideal could not be realized in "one jump." Korea is not like Egypt and India. There the British are governing aliens. Here Koreans and Japanese are of one stock originally and must ultimately be accorded similarity of treatment. There is racial discrimination all over the world—even in Paris! It cannot be wiped out at one sweep. He said furthermore that there must be no difference in education between Japanese and Koreans. Perhaps his most important and significant statement, the bearing of which upon our troublesome educational problem of the past few years you will at once recognize, was to the effect that private schools in Chosen ought to have as complete liberty to teach religion and the Bible as they do in Japan proper. He is therefore evidently opposed to the policy of the Korean administration against which our Mission has been holding out consistently since the new educational ordinances were promulgated. He said in conclusion that religion should be as free in Korea as in Japan proper and authorized us to tell the Koreans that real reforms would be made. We regretfully pointed out to him that the Koreans would not credit the statement, even coming from us, and did not commit ourselves to any course of action. As in the case of ——— (another important member of the Government) we expressed our earnest hope that the degree of liberty which he evidently favored might soon be realized and

we left with him a copy of the document outlining some of the reasons of the present agitation, a copy of which was forwarded to you in my last letter.

You will be interested to know that the Council of Federated Churches of Japan is sending two Japanese pastors in company with Mr. Gilbert Bowles, of the Friends' Mission, to Korea, to get some first-hand information. These gentlemen expect to arrive in Seoul about the 21st of May.

Since arriving in Kobe we have learned that in spite of Governor General Hasagawa's assurance on April 27th that atrocities would stop, and also in spite of the above statement that the Government has no anti-Christian bias, the burning of churches still continues. Whether or not the Government has an anti-Christian bias we are convinced that the acts of its servants show a distinct and vicious bias against Christianity.

### **Exhibit XXX** **A PERSONAL LETTER**

April 30th, 1919.

Dear Father:

I want to send you a sort of estimate of the situation which may help you to correct any opinions that have been wrong. The telegraphic news from ——— has not always been reliable, and it may be that many wild rumors have gone out.

In regard to missionaries participating in the independence uprising there is not the slightest truth. We have not even known what was being done till after the events were pulled off in most cases. We have had a great many men come to us for advice as to how they should act as church officers under such a situation, and all that we have done has been to talk frankly of our non-participation in the matter, of the danger of the destruction of the church in the movement, and of the large chance that there is very small hope that their appeal for independence will ever accomplish anything but loss of life and the tightening of the oppression. The fact that the pastors so largely went into the movement as leaders looks to the officials as though we were back of it somehow, but that simply illustrates the well-organized channels of influence that we have

created in the machinery and life of the Christian community. This church organization was not at all used officially as far as I have heard. I have not heard of a single case where the officers of the church have used their office or the regular meetings of the church for political propaganda. None the less the mutual confidence and acquaintance of Christians all over the country have offered the strongest and most effective channel of political effort after the independence movement won the confidence of the Christian leaders. The names of Pastor \_\_\_\_\_, of \_\_\_\_\_, and of \_\_\_\_\_, of \_\_\_\_\_, of the original manifesto, did more to turn the hearts of the Christians all over the country to the movement than anything else. Their influence is ignored by the officials and missionary influence is suspected instead. It is a Korean movement in method, in spirit, and in management.

That the Christian church is right in the midst of the movement no one will deny. The fact that a very large number of our most influential pastors, elders, students, and prominent Christians are in prison now is clear proof that they have been making their influence felt. It is evident that the Christians are the only ones sufficiently in touch with the international situation to realize that the principle of the self-determination of small nations could be applied to their case at this strategic time. The idea that appeal and protest and noise are as powerful as guns would never have swept the country if the Christians were not what they are. The Christians are the only ones who have not been intimidated to the extermination of all hope. Our Christians have felt that our presence was an influence which would compel justice. The Christian community contains men able to do things on a large scale and ready to go forward if the way is opened. The church is strongest along the Manchurian border provinces and thus most quickly reached by the influences of the political agitators who have taken refuge in China. So all these things have combined to put Christian leaders in the lead in this independence movement. But they have gone into it without the knowledge of the mission body, even their nearest individual missionary co-workers being left in the dark till after the demonstrations were under way. No missionary would have had the faith or foolhardiness to attack one of the strongest military powers in the world without a sword or a gun or any



financial backing, or trustworthy political friends. The Koreans have evidently made up their minds that they would rather die than go on as they are, and so they are committing suicide on Japan's doorstep in protest, in proper Oriental fashion. 'Self-determination or Self-extermination' is the spirit of the movement.

As to the extent of the movement there are two possible views. The uprisings have occurred day and night. Market days, especially where there were thousands of people assembled and arrest was most difficult, were especially used. Schoolboys all over the land have struck, and only those whom the police can lay absolute hands on have been induced to return to their books, and then their work has been largely pretense. Great sections of farmers have refused to sow crops. Merchants have refused to open their shops till forced to do so day after day at the point of the bayonet. As communications are cut off we cannot be sure as to what is going on now, but the streams of prisoners that come in day by day now, after two months of incessant uprisings would indicate that every little hamlet is involved more or less. Usually the method has been for the villages of a township to send in all their younger men to a central market on a day fixed, and there, all together, they have gone to the official offices and shouted their throats sore, saying 'Mansay for Korea.' Every province and most of the large market places throughout the whole land have had their demonstration. High and low, rich and poor, Christian, Buddhist and Confucian, church schools and Japanese public schools without distinction, have gone into the demonstrations, willingly facing death or imprisonment or beating, sheltering neither themselves nor their families—all in hopes that somehow the voice of the oppressed would reach the ear of a merciful God and gain the help of a world newly dedicated to the cause of liberty and justice.

The means used to suppress the revolt have been unmerciful. In fact the movement has probably reached its present proportions largely because of cruel methods of officials in their attempt to crush it. 'Frightfulness' is the proper word to describe much that has taken place. Arrests have been made, with beating with clubs, swords, guns, fists and whips. Where the crowds seemed too threatening they have been dispersed by shooting



promiscuously into the crowds without reference to guilt or non-guilt. After arrest the treatment has been cruel. Trials have been run so nominally and official beating administered with little care as to whether the men beaten were the men who were in the demonstrations or not. All were in sympathy no doubt, and it has been on this supposition that this indiscriminate punishment has been so freely administered, but it is not just to punish a man for what he has not done. Old men have been laid hold on and beaten in substitution for their sons and grandsons and for neighbors who were leaders but fled and have avoided arrest. Wives have been thus beaten and cast into prison to compel them to produce their husbands. Many farmers have been told that they would be beaten and released, so that they could go back to their farming. But they have often been given ninety strokes with such cruelty that they have had to be carried home in stretchers. Tales of rape are now coming in frequently. Torture to extract information seems common. How many have been killed outright no one can estimate. There have been many in this district. Most of our Christian leaders seem to have been imprisoned before the shooting was resorted to. The only Christian killed here in this city was killed by kicks on the back of the neck during the process of arrest. His funeral was the biggest that this city has ever seen and the non-Christian community joined with the Christians in singing Gospel songs as they went along, guarded by a heavy military escort. None of our churches in this province have been burned, but there are undeniable testimonies of the burning of large churches in various districts of the north of here. One well authenticated case of barbarism was in ———, where twenty or twenty-five Christians were shut up in their church, shot down first, and then burned up in their building. This was done, it is claimed, by the new soldiers who have recently arrived. A Korean woman would rather die than expose her naked body in ways not conformable to local custom. But it seems to be the common delight of official depravity just now to humiliate our Christian women by stripping them and beating them while naked. This may be claimed to be merely a process of searching their persons, but the effect is maddening on the Korean masses.

The evident attempt on the part of some officials and most

of the semi-official press to put the blame for this trouble on the missionaries has taken various forms and had several results. The arrest of Mr. ——— has aroused sympathy all over the country. The most reserved sections of the old ——— communities have been touched by this as perhaps by nothing that has ever happened. They know what missionaries do, and such persecution in connection with their patriotic movement for independence has given an open door where we have never had welcome. Missionaries have been beaten and treated in humiliating ways frequently. The press is full of ridicule because of what they pretend to think has been the gross mistake of the American missionaries in leading the Koreans into this strife and bloodshed when even a fool would have had better sense. But, as might be expected, such articles don't fool the men who are putting the demonstrations through. The true position of the missionaries is probably more of a matter of discussion over the nation than ever before and all to the good of the cause we represent. It looks now as though the biggest kind of a landslide were headed towards the church. Of course, this is largely political, but the nation knows now what Christianity and the church are, and most of those who are coming in are ready for both the patriotic leadership of their Christian brethren and also for the full religious life which they have for years known to be the only true way of life, but have refused for various reasons. Reports of church attendance doubling in various places are more and more frequent right in the midst of the most distressing police surveillance. Some churches, where all the leaders are in prison, are practically closed, but in general the work of the Gospel is going right on, even though it has been impossible for missionaries to go to them. In one place a policeman was entrusted with the task of searching the churches of a district. He went about instructing the population that now is the time that all should become Christians. Another story which came yesterday, also, is that at one of the near-by demonstrations where a policeman, Korean, was given a gun by a Japanese gendarme and ordered to shoot. He shot into the air until ordered to use the gun as a club. He rushed madly toward a defenceless and harmless old grandmother with up-lifted gun and brought it down with a crash on the stone wall at her side. The gun stock was splintered and the gun a wreck.

The question as to whether the uprising is justifiable or not may be questioned by some. All agree that the Japanese have given the Koreans such an awakening in the last ten years as they would not have attained in a hundred all by themselves. A reliable, clean government, better commercial enterprises, railways and auto roads, mail service and telegraph, newspapers and public schools, courts of justice and reliable laws have been given Korea in a day by Japan. But the missionary enterprise and the Japanese invasion have united in awakening the nation, and now the time comes when they refuse taxation without representation, object to search of their homes and persons by any common police, protest against being beaten without trial, having their lands seized by the government without compensation for the building of good roads, resent having the so-called reliable, clean government break down wherever Japanese interests are involved; they abominate the system of public prosecution forced upon their every community by the semi-official organization that is undermining the chastity of the nation. Their mail is searched and seized at any small pretense. Commercial enterprise is flourishing, but under such conditions as to render Koreans hopelessly the commercial slaves of the Japanese overlords. Competition on a fair basis seems impossible. Public schools are very few. They have changed textbooks so that Korean children are taught history which lauds Japan and ignores the ancient glories of Korea. Fathers clench their fists as they complain that they are compelled to send their children to Japanese schools to learn in a hated language things that they hold to be lies. Christian and non-Christian schools have been crushed and the Bible ordered out of mission schools even. Newspapers are filled with stuff that has been concocted and censored by the Government till one wonders that manhood could so desert an editor. How can any intelligent human being so garble facts in their papers, while admitting that they do so at the order of the powers that be? New roads are good, but the Koreans, who have built them without proper remuneration; at the point of a sword in great gangs of forced labor, do not appreciate them. Koreans justly feel outraged that Japan limits their right to have good schools of higher than high school grade, and then refuses to let their best sons go abroad to get an education, except a limited number who are kept under Japanese tutelage in Tokyo. Japanese

salaries for men in the same work throughout the whole Government system are twice what Koreans get. And yet it is the Koreans who pay the taxes. The progress is fine and the ship rides high on the wave, but it has become unbearable to the galley slaves in the hold.

## Exhibit XXXI

### A PERSONAL LETTER

April 30th, 1919.

My dear Dr. ——— :

No new village-burnings in this locality recently, and the Government is doing some relief work for the worst cases here now. A committee representing all Westerners living in Seoul met yesterday, and has called a mass meeting of all foreigners for to-morrow at the United States Consulate General, to plan for supplementing the Government aid. They have rice, and not a spoon with which to eat it, or a dish in which to cook it; no bedding, no clothes but those in which they stood when the massacre took place, and they fled from the burning houses as they were. It makes your blood boil! The church at ——— (better not give the name), in north P. Y. was burned the other night, and the Christians were not allowed to try to put out the fire. \$10,000.00 would not replace it. "How long, O Lord, how long?"

No school for us this spring, but I have enough to do. More soldiers here in Seoul, garrisoning the city itself, though there has been no violence or even shouting here for weeks.

To-day's Seoul Press reports that a Korean was sentenced to five years penal servitude for leading a band of agitators and throwing stones at a police box ON MARCH 26! That means that the new law imposing imprisonment for ten years for disturbing public order, a copy of which you have, is RETROACTIVE. When the new law was promulgated, on April 15th, no date was given from which it took effect. But it was stated then that under the existing laws the maximum penalty was two years, so we conclude that it is the plan to apply the new law to cases that are now in the courts.

The Korean Church is standing up well. A famous old

chap, Mr. ———, was being examined the other day, and when they asked him what should be done to make things peaceful, he said: "All you Japanese should begin by becoming Christians; then get a new start." I will not soil my paper with their answer, but he went back to his cell in the jail happy because he had spoken "a good word for Jesus Christ." They are not beating him, I am glad to say, but he is a rare exception.

Hastily,

.....

## **Exhibit XXXII**

### **THE FAILURE OF JAPANESE IMPERIALISM IN KOREA**

BY A BRITISHER

On March first of this year there was initiated in Korea a remarkable revolution; remarkable not only because of its severe indictment of Japanese imperial rule, but also because of the nature and methods of the revolution itself. Despite the superinquisitiveness of the Japanese police this people of twenty million souls rose spontaneously within a few days, and took the Japanese officials unawares. Their "Independence Manifesto" was circulated, in the near-by districts by carriers, but in outlying places was posted Japanese mail and on hand for the day of the demonstration. The method followed was that of passive resistance. No violence was resorted to. Throughout the length and breadth of the land the people contented themselves with speeches in favor of independence, with waving of Korean flags of the old regime, and with shouts of "Mansai." The thirty-three men whose signatures were affixed to the manifesto gathered in Seoul on the first, read their manifesto, and, after celebrating the event by a dinner, calmly telephoned the Japanese police and offered themselves for arrest. The police, marvelling, assented, but soon found that they had a heavier task ahead of them as reports were flashed by wire from the provinces, telling of demonstrations in all the large centers. The avowed aim of the demonstration was to protest against Japanese rule and acquaint the world at large of the Korean nation-wide desire for political independence. The Japanese authorities, taken absolutely by surprise, could think of no method of sup-



pression than military force, and for several days the soldiery ran amuck, creating great havoc. But the Koreans, true to their prearranged plan, bore it all with stoic fortitude and only in very exceptional circumstances retaliated in kind. The rancor which such uncalled-for severity engendered in the minds of the Koreans was not likely to be softened by the Governor General's proclamation, in which he declared that "Japan and Korea are perfectly united into one great power—a power which constitutes one of the principal factors in the League of Nations," and in which he appealed to all Koreans to "exert themselves for the harmonious unification and co-ordination of the two, in order to participate in the great work of humanity and righteousness as one of the leading powers of the world."

Here, then, is a new thing under the sun—a passive revolution—remarkable enough for thinking men to take notice of. At this time, when the two great Anglo-Saxon peoples are standing together for the principles of liberty and nationalism, for treaty obligations, and the rights of small nations safeguarded therein, for a pacific as against a military rule, twenty million Koreans make their sober appeal on these very points, and especially to these two nations. Their independent national life was throttled by Japan ten years ago, despite the fact that it had been guaranteed by treaty. During ten years they have been under the heel of a military government which has destroyed all initiative, and which her well-wishers feared has almost driven out all hope of her ever regaining a place in the sun. The Japanese had excuse for believing that their policy of military rule and imperial education had finally succeeded in crushing all national aspiration. But surely not even the most sanguine of Japanese statesmen could deceive himself into believing that "Japan and Korea are perfectly united into one great nation." Union is a matter of "soul," and the soulless administration of the Japanese in Korea has only forced Korea to keep her soul apart in sullen forgetfulness.

Korea cannot forget her history. She cannot forget that for nearly four thousand years she has been a self-governing state. It is true that she was long tributary to China, and received most of her civilization from this great centre of Eastern culture. But she prides herself that throughout it all she maintained her autonomy. She cherishes the memory of those gen-



erals who succeeded in defeating great China, and does not forget the progress in art and science which she made independently before her devotion to Chinese culture stultified her own native genius. It is natural enough, too, for her to remember that Japan received much of her civilization from the common Chinese source through the medium of Korea. It was a Korean scholar who first taught Japan the Chinese classics. Korean priests carried to Japan her national Buddhist religion. It is believed, too, that the Japanese official dress was fashioned upon Korean models. And there is no question that the skill of the Japanese potter was directly borrowed from old Korea.

For several centuries Korea had lagged behind her two great neighbors. Her officials were selfish despots who crushed the people, and by their system of suppression and extortion put a premium on ignorance and incompetence. The young Korean refers to this period with a keen sense of shame, but also with suppressed resentment that the sins of a past age should be added upon him. His resentment is the more unfeigned when he considers that the autonomy she maintained through four thousand years—an autonomy that even great China respected—should at last have been wrested from her by the nation that drew much of its ancient civilization through her medium, and whose modernism is only a few decades in advance of her own.

The events that led to annexation are well known. The Chino-Japanese War left Japan mistress of the East, and for her own safety she demanded that Korea should maintain absolute neutrality, and be relieved of her annual tribute to China. Danger arose, however, from another source, for Russia pushed her political influence too far South for Japan's peace of mind. The result was the Russo-Japanese War for the avowed purpose of maintaining Korean independence. The outcome, however, was a Japanese protectorate over Korea, with the transfer to Japan of Korea's foreign relations. A secret protest against Japanese interference made by the Emperor of Korea to the Hague Conference in 1907 led to the dethronement of the reigning monarch and the tightening of the chain about Korea. The assassination of Prince Ito in Harbin by a Korean, and repeated revolts in the peninsula finally gave Japan the excuse for annexation in 1910. It was done on a plea of necessity.

Korea was the Eastern core of contention, and so long as she remained independent, and so ill-fitted to govern herself, the peace of the East was threatened. So Japan, in the flush of her victory over a European power, became the guardian of the peace of the East, and inaugurated her assumption of the new rôle by the annexation of Korea. During the ten years that have intervened she has successfully preserved the peace, but only, to use a homely simile, as a housewife preserves her summer fruit. She plucks it from its living stem, and adding enough sugar to keep it sweet throughout its captivity, corks it firmly down to keep it from external influences. It looks good enough, and promised well enough for the prospective consumer, but once the top is off, the ferment begins. Japan made no mean showing in the bottling-up process, nor did she stint the sugar. But there was never a shadow of doubt who the ultimate consumer should be. And now that the lid has sprung for a season, the ferment has already begun.

The administration of Japan in Korea has much to its credit. She has been jealous of the world's approval, and for nine years the Governor General has issued a well-got-up Annual Report in English on Reforms and Progress in Korea. Each year there has been found material for publication. Japan has instituted and carried out very successfully a progressive program of improvement. Highways, railways, harbors, and communications, these have increased in number and efficiency sufficient to merit the gratitude of the native and the praise of the outsider. Abuses in the local administration, in the collection of taxes, and in the law courts have been remedied. Agriculture, trade, and industry have been encouraged. The number of hospitals has been increased, and the police hygienic regulations have improved sanitary conditions. The educational system has been extended and made uniform. Finance has been placed on a more stable basis, and abuses in the currency rectified. These and such like reforms have compelled the Korean to thankfully acknowledge his debt to Japan.

But there are other aspects of the Japanese administration that tempt the patriotic Korean to greater thankfulness, inasmuch as they have forced Korea to still nurture beneath a mask of political indifference a hatred of Japan, and a national aspiration which has burst forth at the first shadow of an oppor-

tunity. Military occupation and military government, and the evident purpose of the administration to exploit Korea for the benefit of Japan and the Japanese settler—these rankle in the sensitive Korean mind and force him to fix his hope upon “The Day” when his “national aspirations shall be accorded the utmost satisfaction.” The military rule has not left him even the vestige of liberty. Every man’s movements are under the inquisitorial scrutiny of police and gendarme. All public meetings and society organizations are governed by law. A meeting to discuss world events is an impossibility; a democratic remark would inevitably mean a clash with officialdom. Free speech is unknown. Two years ago three students of the Pyengyang Union Christian College were arrested for making some liberal remarks in a valedictory address, and the literary society of that college was forced to discontinue. It goes without saying that the press is muzzled. No progressive young Korean can find a medium for the expression of his ideas. One of the brightest of young Koreans, Mr. ———, is credited with having edited no less than five magazines, one after the other of which have been suppressed. He is now in prison on the charge of having written the recent Independence Manifesto. Of magazines run by Koreans, there are no more than one or two in Korea proper, and some four or five issued by college students in Japan. Newspapers in Korea are all edited by Japanese, and even in the case of “Christian Messenger,” the Korean editor is forbidden to publish paragraphs on world events.

Religious freedom is guaranteed by the Japanese constitution, and secured for Korea by the Treaty of Annexation. It is perhaps only due to the faults inherent in a military system that subordinate officials tend to interfere even here. But interfere they do, particularly in the country districts. The administration encourages Buddhism as the national religion, and the outcry against Christians and the Christian missionaries which followed the present revolt is symptomatic of a deep-seated prejudice. At the present time all Christians are under suspicion, and non-Christians recognize that a profession of Christianity is tantamount to courting official disfavor.

The self-interestedness of the Imperial Japanese rule in Korea is well exemplified in the educational system. A study of it discovers three determining principles: (1) Koreans shall

be converted into Japanese; (2) Emphasis shall be laid upon a technical education, but (3) Koreans shall not be entrusted with a liberal higher education. In order to accomplish the first of those aims, the chief subject of study in the common school curriculum is the Japanese language. Not only is there more time given to this subject than to any other two subjects together, but every other subject is taught through the medium of this language, except the Korean script. This subject is given no more than two periods every second day, so that if the Korean child still understands his native tongue it is despite his education. Korean history is banned. In its place is a history of Japan with Korean history interspersed here and there, much as colonial history is mentioned in a school of history of England. Japanese patriotic songs are meant to cultivate the national spirit. A sense of Japan's military prowess is duly impressed upon the youthful minds by the full regalia—even to the sword—of his Japanese teachers. The second aim of laying emphasis upon a technical education can, of itself, do no harm. The Koreans sorely need to be taught the dignity of labor. But standing, as it does, as the sole purely educational aim, it inevitably gives the Korean the idea that Japan wishes to make him the hewer of wood and the drawer of water. To win unqualified praise such education must go hand in hand with a higher grade general education. But it is just here that the educational system of Korea is chiefly defective. It is in the interest of the Japanese imperial idea that Korea should be kept ignorant of modern events, and the authorities are afraid of a thorough-going liberal education. Other than the three special colleges, one each of law, medicine and technical, there are neither academies, colleges, nor a university provided by the government in Korea. The academies that existed before annexation have been abolished and replaced by "Higher Common Schools" of a much lower standard.

Not only is it in the system of education that the Koreans criticize the administration, but in the inadequacy of the number of schools provided for the population, and especially in view of the discrimination in this respect made in favor of the Japanese residents in Korea. The following table will show the statistics for the year 1916 as published in the Governor General's annual report, together with a comparative statement of Protestant Mission schools:

## Comparative Statistics of Schools in Korea for Koreans and Japanese (with Statistics of Mission Schools)

Government Schools for Koreans				Government Schools for Japanese			Christian Schools	
Kind of School	No.	Schol- ars	Ap- plica- tions	School	No.	Schol- ars	No.	Schol- ars
Elem. Pub. Sch.	447	67,629	....	Elem. Sch.	324	34,100	601	22,542
High Elem. Sch.	3	537	2,651	Middle Sch.	3	375	17	2,125
Girls' H. Sch....	2	164	187	Girls' H. S.	9	526	14	1,352
College .....	3	277	844	College ...	2	91	4	250
Gov't Subsidies....		Y.602,888.			Y.339,660.		None	
Population .....		17,500,000			300,000		300,000	

The above table shows that for a Korean population of 17,500,000 the government has provided no more than 447 schools, capable of receiving no more than 67,629 scholars, or about 1/300 of the population. Compared with this there has been provided for the 300,000 Japanese residents 324 schools, capable of receiving 34,100 scholars, or 1/9 of the population. This does not mean that the Koreans are unwilling to educate their boys. The Governor General reports the existence of no fewer than 21,800 old-type village schools, which must provide the elements of education to some 500,000 boys. To this must be added the 22,542 children attending Christian schools. But it is the higher grade school system that receives most criticism from the Korean. Not only do the Japanese boys and girls in Korea get a higher standard of education than the native Korean, but more ample provision is made for their numbers. Including the three colleges, there are only seven schools for Koreans above the common public school grade capable of admitting no more than 978 scholars, whereas the Japanese children have 14 schools, with a capacity for receiving 992 scholars. Surely this leaves the administration open to the charge of discrimination and to the further charge of refusing the Korean the benefits of higher education. Here again the excuse cannot be made that Koreans are indifferent to higher education, for in 1916 there were 3,682 applicants for the 978 places. The much suspected and maligned Christian church has stepped into the breach, and with its 31 academies and 4 colleges receives yearly almost 4,000 students. If it be argued that the government encourages young Koreans to take their higher education in Japan, the answer is that for most young men the cost is prohibitive, and



that what applies to the Korean youth should apply equally to the sons of Japanese settlers. Not until the government makes as fair provision from public funds, for the native Koreans as she does for the Japanese colonists will she free herself from the stigma of "race discrimination" within her own empire.

Another example of this "race discrimination" is to be found in her system of official appointments. This is the natural outgrowth of her military policy, and depends upon the educational system for an excuse for its continuance. The ignorance and incapacity of the Korean officials of the former regime was made the excuse for the wholesale employment of Japanese in the higher official service. It was fondly hoped by Koreans that as the years went by and their stronger men acquired more experience and were educated under the Japanese administration, the higher official positions would be thrown open to them. The opposite has been the policy and practice of the Japanese. In 1910 six out of thirteen provincial governors were Korean, now there are only three. At that time all district magistracies were held by Koreans, now at least one-seventh of the largest districts are governed by Japanese magistrates, and even in some places the village provostship has been transferred to Japanese hands. The number of judgeships that have gone to the Koreans is very small, and all school principals are Japanese. The story is the same in every public department. But it is not only in the filling of offices that the discrimination appears, but also in the dignity and remuneration attaching thereto. The Japanese officials of the same rank receive 40% higher salaries than the Koreans, and in addition allowances for colonial service. This may happen in the case of men who graduate from the same school. One need not labor to point that the Japanese regard themselves as the superior race. It appears no less among the educated than among the lower classes. The most dignified Korean official, if met by a Japanese stranger, would invariably be conscious of the other's sense of superiority, and in the same business office the overbearing manner of the Japanese to their Korean assistants is evident enough even to the passer-by.

Look at the administration from whatever point you will, the aim of the Japanese to make Korea a preserve for Japanese officialdom and exploit her for the benefit of Japan and Japanese



colonists stands out as clear as day. Visit the large harbors and you will find that the land adjoining the docks is monopolized by the Japanese, and the Koreans denied building rights within the Japanese section. The crown lands that have been held in perpetual lease by generations of Korean farmers have been sold by the government, almost exclusively to Japanese settlers. For this reason the immigration to Manchuria has been increasing year by year. The banking system of the peninsula has been greatly extended and improved, and is increasingly proving a boon to the natives. But it is surely unfortunate that, with the possible exception of the Kanjo Bank, all the managers and nine-tenths of the clerks are Japanese. It is this wholesale handicapping of the Korean youth that engenders the disaffection which has recently shown itself. This coming as it does, from a people who are so strongly urging their policy of "No Race Discrimination," is to say the least, an aspersion on Japanese sincerity. Discrimination runs through their whole imperial policy, is applied in their private business enterprises, and is perpetuated by their school system. For not only are Japanese and Korean children separated in their schools, but the standard of education is higher for the Japanese than it is for the Korean.

The origin of the present demonstration in favor of Independence has to be sought, then, in the persevering spirit, in the Korean's sense of humiliation, and in a due appreciation of the evils and deficiencies of the present administration. It has an immediate cause which will be noted below, but the movement is by no means "a sporadic revival of patriotism, based upon false reports and instigated by a few individuals." There are three classes principally involved, but a fourth followed spontaneously and swept all Korea into the movement.

(A) The Japanese lay the chief blame upon a sect called "The Church of the Heavenly Way." Their creed is a simple one of two lines, which, however, may not be as colorless as it looks:

Who waits on God  
Shall wield God's might;  
Who ne'er forgets  
All things come right.

Forgets what? To the initiated this may hold more than a religious meaning. Be that as it may, it is worth nothing that this sect has been in existence, under this name, since annexation. Its membership exceeds a million. On three gala days enormous crowds gather in the capital and throughout the country, ostensibly to worship, but in reality to perpetuate the spirit of patriotism, and incidentally to provide the organization for a united effort when "The Day" should arrive. The sect is avowedly politico-religious, and their prominence in the recent demonstrations is easily accounted for.

(B) The same can not be said of the native Christian church. For many years the Korean Christians have been without hope in this world. So lacking has been their interest in political affairs that the chief tenet of their faith has been the second coming of Christ. The Japanese themselves have been severe in their criticism of the "other-worldliness" of the Christian community. It was a surprise, therefore, to the officials and to the missionaries no less, when the church threw off its cloak of indifference and unanimously began to tackle the political problem of the country. The Japanese interpretation of this phenomena is a comment upon the official mind. They refuse to think that the Korean people could have conceived or carried through such a movement without the aid of foreign missionaries. They have despised the ability of the Korean, and have made it their policy to crush all initiative. Hence, too, their mad rage against the Christians. Profession of faith is a heinous crime, and a proof that the believer is in league with the foreigner against Japan. The Korean is denied the credit of being able to think or act independently. The prominent part played by the Christians in the revolt is only a proof that the more enlightened and more sensitive natures are to be found in the church. And who but a prig would deny that political wisdom might be expected even from a Christian.

(C) The third class involved consists of Koreans abroad. Students and business men in Japan, China, Russia, and America cannot fail to be influenced by the present world movements. The problems of the peace conference are their problems. Most of them have left Korea as a protest against Japanese rule, and it is inevitable that correspondence with friends in Korea should have nourished the patient but persistent anticipations of "The Day."

(D) The educated Koreans are to be found in one or the other of the above classes, or in the Buddhist faith. Little mention has been made of the part played by the Buddhists in the rising, but two of their leading priests signed the declaration of independence, and demonstrations took place in many of their monasteries. But it was not from the educated classes alone that the protest came. Despite the censorship of the Japanese press, which left many places completely isolated, the country people spontaneously rose throughout the whole land. This can only be explained by the assumption that it needed only a rumor to rouse the national spirit from its seeming lethargy. Old men and ignorant peasants joined in the demonstration. Forbidden oracles and prophecies were brought from the recesses of the past and discussed. "Wai Wang Sam Nyunm Ka Jung Pal Nyun," a five-hundred-old prophecy, is now interpreted as meaning "A Japanese King for three years" (referring to the protectorate 1907-1910), "Eight years' rule by 'Ka'" (Kain being the name of the present reigning emperor, and this the eighth year of his reign). Such like oracles are the common possession of the peasant class and the Bible of the old men. Omens and portents are eagerly sought. During these days the hills around — resounded to shout of "Mansai" by an unseen host. Strange maneuvers of Japanese and of old Korean flags have been reported and taken as good omens. We may laugh at the superstition, but we are forced to note the fact that a nation-wide revolution could be evoked on such slim evidence. The merest semblance of an opportunity was eagerly grasped which might bring relief from their oppressive rule.

The immediate reason for the revolt is the idea that Korea may share in the application of the principle of national self-determination. Koreans feel that at last the world is going to be offered another opportunity to revive just national ideas. Times have changed since Japan took over Korea. They feel that it is no longer either justifiable or possible to maintain the peace of the East by a form of government that crushes every legitimate aspiration of a people of twenty million souls. It was in the hope that the world might learn the true state of affairs in Korea—in the hope that even the statesmen gathered in Paris might learn it—that the present movement was launched.

The revolution was organized by a committee of thirty-three leaders, who issued a manifesto calling upon Koreans everywhere to unite, stating their aims and counseling peaceful methods. The three main clauses read as follows:

(1) What we as a nation desire is justice, human rights, a fair chance to life, and scope for legitimate ideals.

(2) We pledge ourselves to the last man and the last hour to see that a fair statement of our people's mind is given to the world.

(3) Let us look to conduct that we do all things orderly, molesting no one and respecting property.

In pursuance of this policy the Korean demonstrators have instituted a passive revolution. With empty hands, save for the carrying of a small Korean flag, with nothing but shouts of "Mansei—long live Korea!" the movement has been remarkable for its freedom from violence on the part of the Koreans. They possess no arms, and would have been at the mercy of the Japanese military had they resorted to force. The marvel is that they were able to endure to the end and refuse to retaliate against the brutal methods which the administration has taken to subdue the disturbances. The Japanese soldiery were let loose in many places and played havoc among the most innocent. Churches have been wrecked and men hurried to jail on the merest pretext. The usual brutal methods of police investigation have been adopted, and men have come out of the police stations so bruised and battered as to be unfit for work for days. A strike or two in the capital, the refusal of the storekeepers to open their doors, the closing of schools, and frequent demonstrations in favor of independence—that has been the extent of the revolt. Thousands are in jail, and thousands more are carrying on the work which their organizers began. There seems to be no disposition to give up until some promise of reform is given. The Japanese have unfortunately made up their minds to suppress the revolt by force and intimidation. It remains to be seen who will win out.

The question of the fitness of the Korean people to govern themselves has been much to the fore. Fears have been expressed that if Japan left Korea alone to-day, the result would be anarchy and Bolshevism. That there would be factions no one will deny—is there any country in this old world where

there are not? But that Koreans would go to extremes no one who knows their peace-loving character will grant. It is manifestly unfair to saddle upon new Korea the faults of a former autocratic regime. Times have changed. Koreans of good standing and ability have received their education in Japan and America. They have received American ideals through American missionaries. The Japanese system has not tended to produce big men, but despite it capable men are to be found. The government of a church differs greatly from the administration of a country, but the fundamental faculty is the same. If the ability shown by the Korean Christians in their church courts is any criterion, one might even hope for their successful administration of national affairs. The very efficiency and courage which they have shown in their present revolt is no mean proof of their ability, and the unanimity with which all classes throughout the entire land followed the lead of their committees show a remarkable power of organization and a wonderful willingness to be led. The Koreans are divided in their political aims. Some desire a form of self-government under the suzerainty of Japan along the lines of Britain's self-governing dominions. Others maintain that as Korea and Japan are two distinct races with different national spirit, absolute autonomy alone will provide the necessary opportunity for national progress. Koreans feel confident that they could make as good a showing as Japan. Korean students in Japan, of whom there are eight hundred this year, claim that they more than hold their own with Japanese students, despite the handicap of the Japanese language. Be that as it may, one thing stands clear—things can never go along as they did before the revolt. Whatever may result, the Koreans must be given a greater opportunity to develop along their own national lines. Their national history must be held inviolate, their national language respected. Military rule with its system of gendarmerie must go, and the common rights of man be secured for all. The educational system must give the Korean youth the best possible chance to make good, and the offer of promotion to higher offices must prove the incentive. Ultimately there should be no officé in the state which a Korean boy may not one day aspire to. Whether this will mean that Japan must withdraw from the peninsula or not, one cannot predict. It remains to be seen whether Japan, in the



present instance, will respond to the reasonable and restrained protest of this people in the spirit of the times. There are not wanting signs that Japan is mustering courage to defy the enemy within her own gates. The world, and little Korea, will await the outcome. In the meantime we content ourselves with knowing that imperial military rule in Korea stands condemned, and that instead of the two nations being perfectly united they are further apart to-day than ever.

### **Exhibit XXXIII**

#### **COPIES OF DOCUMENTS PRESENTED TO IMPORTANT JAPANESE IN TOKYO BY A COMMITTEE FROM KOREA**

**Some Reasons Underlying the Present Agitation in Chosen**  
May 10, 1919.

The following paper is a condensed statement of what appear to be the most important of the underlying causes of the present agitation in Korea. All of the reasons given have appeared in some form or other in declarations, petitions and bulletins issued by the Koreans, and so may be taken as an expression of Korean opinion. The statement contains only what seem to some friends of Japan and Korea to be the most important of the causes involved.

It should be said also that it does not embody the immediate causes of this outbreak such as the rumors in connection with the work of the Peace Conference, prevalent ideas of "self-determination," the activities of Koreans abroad and the death of the ex-Emperor of Korea.

#### **I. The Desire for Independence.**

It must be remembered that the assimilation of an alien race is a difficult task at best, and that in this case it is made more difficult by the fact that the Koreans as a people have never in their hearts been reconciled to annexation.

#### **II. The Rigor of the Military Administration.**

Koreans do not know what it would be like to be under a civil administration. Their whole idea of the Imperial Government is drawn from their experiences of military rule.

1. The fact that the police have gendarmes and soldiers associated with them in the administration of law leads the



Korean to fear the police and to regard them not as civil servants and protectors but as oppressors.

2. This impression is deepened by the harsh and indiscriminate manner in which laws are administered. In the report issued by the Government General in July, 1918 (covering the year 1916-1917) it is stated that out of 82,121 offenders dealt with in "Police Summary Judgment," 952 were pardoned, 81,139 were sentenced, and only 30 were able to prove their innocence. The unavoidable result of such a system is that a naturally peaceful and gentle-minded people are living in a state of constant terror.

3. The spy system has added to the terrorization of the people. Spies, usually low-class Koreans, are everywhere. No one knows when nor in what form the most harmless acts or words may be reported to the authorities.

4. The treatment of those arrested adds to the fear and hatred of the police.

5. The show of force on all occasions adds to the irritation. Civil officials, even primary school teachers, wear swords.

6. This system has brought the people to believe that the administration has no idea of leading them, but only of compelling obedience.

### III. Denationalization.

1. The Koreans are a different race, with different history, traditions, ideals, ethics and customs. The present administration seems to aim at the elimination of many things traditionally Korean and the substitution of things new and strange. There seems to be no systematic attempt to win the Korean's loyalty for Japan but to make over the Korean into a Japanese.

2. The exclusion of the Korean language from schools, courts and legal documents is a great source of irritation. It is recognized that the question of language presents a problem to the government, but the effect of the present policy on the mind of the Korean cannot be minimized.

3. The elimination of Korean history from school curricula is another source of irritation. The Koreans feel that the presentation of the subject of Korean history is neither as full nor as accurate as its importance would warrant.

**IV. The Koreans have no real share in their government, either legislative or executive, and no hope of securing this has been held out to them.**

1. Some Koreans do hold office, but usually minor ones, and in the case of those holding an important office they can usually be overruled by Japanese officials of lower rank.

2. The inferior education given to the Korean students deprives them of the hope of securing positions by competitive merit in the future.

**V. Discrimination Against Koreans.**

1. There is discrimination in salaries for the same services in government institutions, in business houses and in labor.

2. In government schools the curriculum is different for Japanese and Koreans. The latter have from two to three years shorter course than the former. In the matter of English also, which all desire to learn, the Japanese have four days a week for five years while the Koreans have only two hours a week for two years. Such differences in educational facilities may be accounted for by the government's inability to provide full courses as yet, but it works an evident hardship and is resented by the Koreans.

3. Corporal punishment can be legally administered only to Koreans.

4. There is discrimination in many apparently minor but really significant matters. For instance, Koreans are rarely employed as train boys or akabos, and Japanese rickisha men are given the best positions at railway stations.

**VI. No Liberty of Speech, Press or Assembly.**

(Christian Koreans were arrested who were heard praying for a spiritual revival, the authorities insisting that this meant a political revival.)

**VII. Limited Religious Liberty.**

1. Religion cannot be taught in private schools according to the Government Revised Educational Ordinances, which recognize no difference between government and private schools.

2. In the case of Christianity, the Bible cannot be taught in private schools opened since March, 1915, or in any schools after 1925.

3. Ceremonies are required which seem to be a violation of conscience to Koreans.

4. Local officials constantly intimidate Christians and those intending to become Christians, in what appears to be an effort to discourage Christianity.

### VIII. Practical Prohibition of Korean Study and Travel Abroad.

1. Koreans know that Japan's progress is largely traceable to foreign studies at the beginning of the Meiji Era and since, and desire the same opportunity for improvement. With the exception of certain specially favored cases, Koreans are not permitted to go abroad, and those who have received their education abroad are not permitted to return.

2. Even Koreans who have been educated in Japan are so constantly watched by the police on their return to Korea that they can make no proper use of their education.

### IX. Expropriation of Crown Lands.

In many sections of Korea Crown lands have been occupied and farmed by the Koreans for generations on the basis of a moderate rental. In many cases the leasehold of these lands had acquired a value almost equal to that of land held in full possession. These lands, however, were in many cases turned over to the Oriental Development Company, and the former occupants required to pay greatly increased rents, which compelled them to abandon the land in favor of government-assisted Japanese settlers.

### X. Demoralizing Influences Newly Introduced.

1. Licensed prostitution in all cities and towns has made this form of immorality more open and accessible, and hence has had a more demoralizing effect as well as a more widespread influence upon the young men of the country.

2. The persistent sale of the morphine needle has been unrestricted in many sections.

### XI. Forced Migration to Manchuria.

The extensive migration of Japanese farmers into central and southern Korea and their occupation of often unjustly secured lands has forced the migration of thousands of Koreans into the less desirable and undeveloped sections of Manchuria.

## XII. Many Improvements Benefit Japanese More Than Koreans.

1. Industrial, e. g. The lumber industry, although extensively developed, brings no additional benefit to the Koreans. In fact, lumber costs more than formerly.

2. Commercial. The Korean merchants lack modern business training and experience, which makes it difficult for them to withstand the unrestricted competition of Japanese merchants.

3. In many cases licensed monopolies work great hardship to the Koreans and cause resentment, e. g., the cotton monopoly and the fertilizer monopoly in Sen Sen.

### Exhibit XXXIV

#### BRUTALITIES IN SYENCHUN IN MAY

STATEMENT BY REV.....

May 25th, 1919.

Eleven Kangkei boys came here from ————. All the eleven were beaten ninety stripes—thirty each day for three days, May 16, 17 and 18, and let out May 18th. Nine came here May 22nd, and two more May 24th.

Tak Chank Kuk died about noon, May 23rd.

Kim Myungha died this evening.

Kim Hyungsun is very sick.

Kim Chungsun and Song Taksam are able to walk but are badly broken.

Kim Oosik seemed very doubtful but afterward improved.

Choi Tungwon, Kim Changook, Kim Sungkil, and Ko Pongsu are able to be about, though the two have broken flesh.

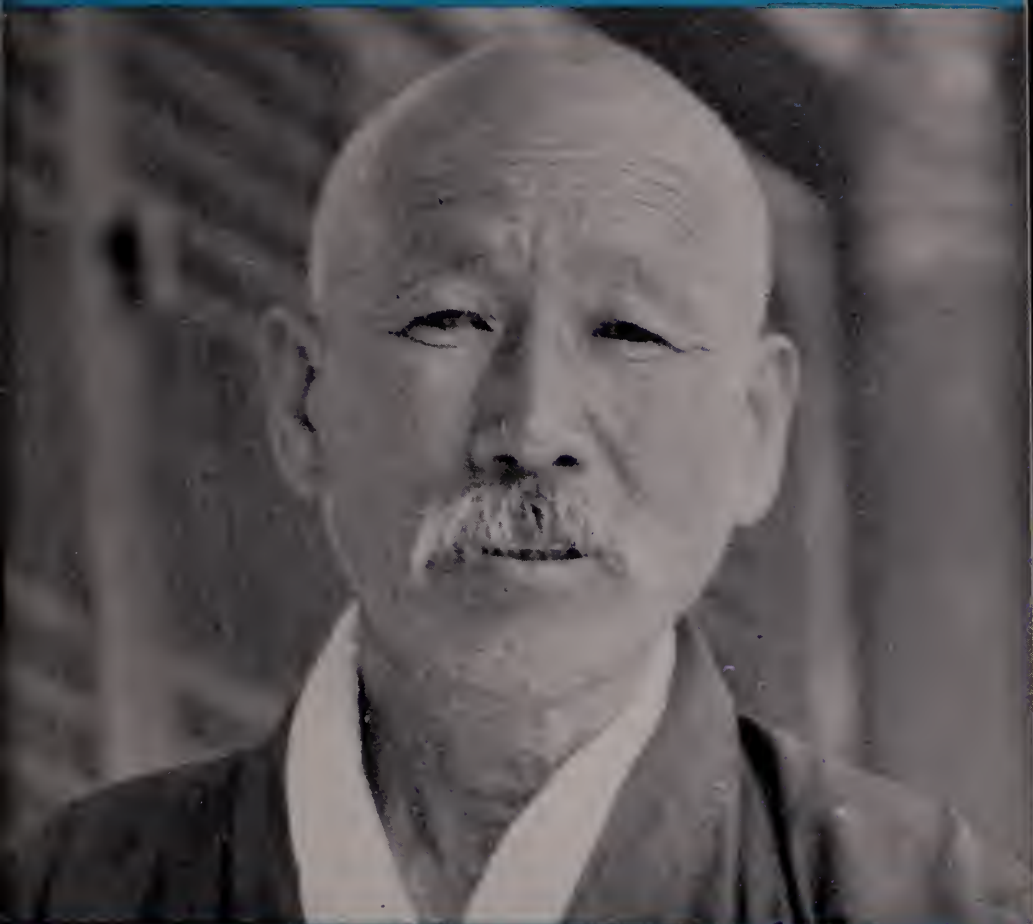
Kim Syungha rode from ———— on his bicycle and reached here about an hour before his brother died. The first six who came into the hospital were in a dreadful fix, four days after the beating. No dressing or anything had been done for them. Dr. Sharrocks just told me that he feels doubtful about some of the others since Myungha died. It is gangrene. One of these boys is a Chun Kyoin, and another is not a Christian, but the rest are all Christians.

Mr. Lampe has photographs. The stripes were laid on to the buttocks and the flesh pounded into a pulp.



# KOREA LOOKS AHEAD

BY ANDREW J. GRAJDANZEV



A LAND OF PROUD PEOPLE, ANCIENT CULTURE, NATURAL  
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## KOREA LOOKS AHEAD

FIFTY YEARS AGO the people and rulers of Korea looked upon the United States as a friend in need. American missionaries, business men and advisers were active in the country. Article I of the Treaty of Amity and Commerce between the kingdom of Korea and the United States, concluded on May 22, 1882, proclaimed:

There shall be perpetual peace and friendship between the President of the United States and the King of Chosen [Korea] and the citizens and subjects of their respective governments.

If other Powers deal unjustly or oppressively with either government, the other will exert its good offices, on being informed of the case, to bring about an amicable arrangement, thus showing their friendly feelings.

The Koreans hoped that the aid and friendship of America would enable them to preserve their independence against the encroachments of Japan. Although this hope was not fulfilled, a friendly feeling toward the United States and hope for help in the future still persist among Koreans.

But on this side of the Pacific, Korea was almost completely forgotten after her annexation by Japan in 1910, until the Cairo Declaration of December 1, 1943 again placed the problem of Korea before the world. It stated that:

The aforesaid three great powers [the United States, Great Britain and China], mindful of the enslavement of the people of Korea, are determined that in due course Korea shall become free and independent.



A village in central Korea, seen from the road to the Diamond Mountains.

The defeat of Japan will remove the main obstacle to Korea's national development. She will again become an independent country, with pride in her heritage and with hope for the future. Her close ties with the United States, which were never completely severed by the Japanese intervention—largely owing to the efforts of missionaries—will undoubtedly be resumed and strengthened. In this pamphlet American readers will find answers to some of their questions concerning Korea—her people and resources, the story of her past, her present difficulties and future possibilities. It is the story of a peaceful people whose development was arrested by a ruthless conqueror. It is the story of a friendly but forgotten and neglected nation which we must rediscover.

## OVER THE MOUNTAINS

Korea is an eastern Asiatic country roughly the size of Minnesota or Great Britain, with a population of about 25,000,000. In population she ranks twelfth or thirteenth among the countries of the world.

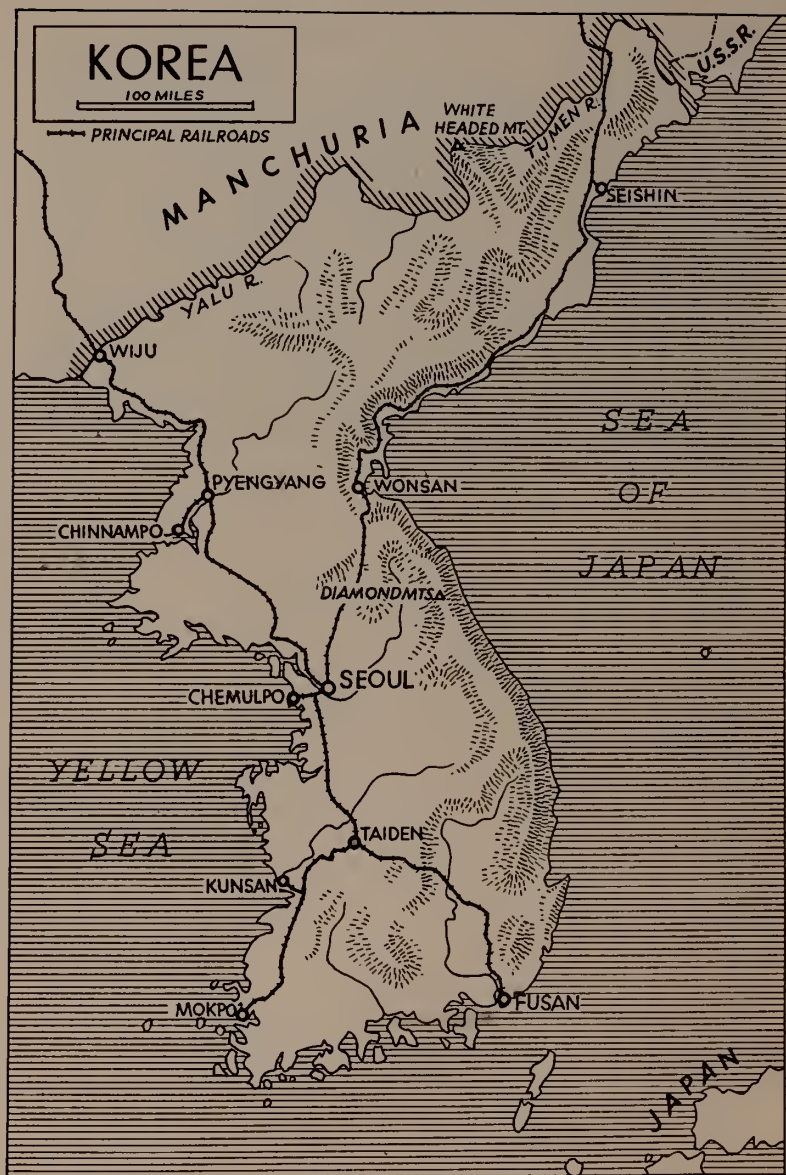
Her historical records go back at least two thousand years. She was a civilized country in the days of Imperial Rome. Japan received Buddhism and much of her civilization from China by way of Korea. In Korea there are now 500,000 Christians, in spite of former persecutions and present obstacles to missionary effort, and Christian influence in the country is strong.

Korea is a mountainous country. It is difficult to find a spot where mountains do not form part of the landscape. "Over the mountains, mountains still, numberless mountains," say Koreans. This immediately gives us a clue to Korean life. A mountainous country is usually a country of great beauty; it is also one where agriculture is difficult, and agriculture, from time immemorial, has been the main occupation of Koreans.

The country of the Koreans is a peninsula washed on three sides by the sea—the Japan Sea, the Korea Strait and the Yellow Sea. Though the longest distance from north to south is only 463 miles and from east to west 170 miles, the coastline is 5,400 miles long. Off the coast there are 3,479 islands, mostly very small, the combined coastline of which is about 6,000 miles. Many bays, inlets, straits and passages, islands and archipelagoes add to the beauty of the seacoast. The brilliant carpet of flowers on the islands with lilies, daisies, azaleas and asters, bright butterflies, and snow-white herons, cranes and cormorants watching in the shallows for passing fish, all give life and color to the coastal landscape.

Korea is a country of extraordinary beauty, and this beauty is keenly appreciated by Koreans. Take a Korean map of the





country. You will find on it the Hill of White Clouds, the Great White Mountain, the Hill of Joy, Heaven-Reaching Summit, the Mountain of Lasting Peace and hundreds of other poetic names. The imagination of the villagers peoples the mountains and seas with dragons. The waterspouts are dragons, the typhoons are caused by dragons, and many wonderful stories are told about mountains which walk, fight or help the man in danger and otherwise behave as living creatures. Along the way-side and in the mountain passes one finds shrines at which the wayfarer may tender his offerings to the spirits that live in the mountain, in a brook or in a tree. Despite the influence of Buddhism, Confucianism and Christianity, primitive animistic beliefs are still strong among the village folk.

In some parts of the country the mountains and hills are now bare of trees, and afforestation is one of Korea's problems. But in the north there are still great forests where one can meet mighty tigers, leopards, wild boar, deer, lynxes and wolves. Spruce, larch, birch, juniper and maple in the north give place to pine, oak, maple and alder in the south. Among the birds, one may meet in Korea such old friends as the crow, magpie, heron, crane, lark, oriole, sparrow, robin, quail and pheasant, and such migratory birds as the goose, duck and swan.

### **A MONSOON COUNTRY**

The climate of Korea is moderate, reminding one of the Atlantic coast of the United States between North Carolina and Massachusetts, with the difference that, being a monsoon country, Korea receives most of its rainfall in the summer. In a country where two crops are often raised from the same field this concentration of rain in a few months makes irrigation imperative. Moreover, in some years the summer monsoons fail to come, resulting in a disastrous failure of crops and in famine, while in others the country suffers from an overabundance of rain. There have been days when in one place the amount of precipitation in a day, or perhaps in a few hours, would be

14 inches (i.e. as much as in Montana or South Dakota during an entire year). The result of this, naturally, is frequent floods, made more severe by the absence of large forests in central and southern Korea.

Being a narrow peninsula, Korea has few large rivers. The length of the Yalu, the longest, is only 491 miles. "Yalu," by the way, is the Chinese name for this river. Most Korean names are written in Chinese characters. In Korea these characters are pronounced in a Korean way, while the same character is pronounced by Chinese in a Chinese way and by Japanese in a Japanese way. Thus any Korean name (or any Chinese or Japanese name) is read differently by Koreans, Chinese and Japanese. The river called "Yalu" by the Chinese is called "Amnok" by Koreans and "Oryoku" by Japanese, but the character is the same and means "duck-green."

#### RIVERS AND WATER POWER

The Yalu river forms the frontier between Korea and Chinese Manchuria. It begins at the highest mountain of Korea and Manchuria—Paik Tu San, in Chinese Pai T'ou Shan, or White-headed Mountain, 9,008 feet high. Falling from this great elevation to sea level within 500 miles, the Yalu offers several locations for the construction of dams and the establishment of electric power stations. As we shall see later, water power is among the chief resources of Korea. The Tumen, the third largest river of Korea, 324 miles long, begins on the northern side of the same mountain and again forms the frontier of Korea, first with Manchuria and then for a short distance of twenty miles with Russia.

The main mountain range passes close to the eastern shore of the country. On the western side of the mountains the slopes descend gradually and make room for rivers; but in the east the mountains are steep and rugged and often fall abruptly to the sea. Coming from the sea one sees a beautiful but inaccessible barrier of forest-covered ranges, with summits covered with

snow or wrapped in clouds, and beautiful valleys through which rivers fall in cascades of silver.

We have noted that the eastern slopes of the ranges are abrupt as compared with the more gentle fall to the west. Modern science can make use of this difference: by boring tunnels through the mountains it becomes possible to turn away the mountain rivers from their westerly course, throw them down the precipices in the east, and harness the power thus generated to turn machines. Water power has transformed the quiet north into a region of modern factories, seat of the chemical industry, a mining region, where coal, iron ore, gold and other metals or ores are brought to the surface of the land. The south remains a region of quiet villages lost among the bright green rice fields, of small noisy market towns, of cities with their centuries-old walls and palaces from which life has gone.

## RESOURCES, PRESENT AND POTENTIAL

Korea is fairly well endowed with natural resources. Because of its mountainous character, it can never become a great granary of the Far East; but with the possibility of gathering two or more crops from the same field, with improvement and expansion of the irrigation system, with energetic afforestation (which will make floods less destructive), and with greater use of fertilizers, Korea should be able to feed herself.

Her known reserves of coal are estimated at two billion tons, which is far smaller, for her population, than those of the United States but larger than those of Italy and many other European countries. The main reserve is anthracite. With careful use of her reserves Korea can for a long time satisfy her needs in coal. She has, however, no petroleum.

The greatest resource of Korea, which may go far to mitigate her shortage of coal, is her water power. It is estimated that the harnessing of her rivers may bring the total capacity of hydro-electric stations to five million kilowatts. This would mean that Korea could generate more electricity than France did in 1938,

or, on a per capita basis, as much as the United States in the same year. This means that Korea has a fairly good chance to become an industrialized nation. Moreover, the western coast of Korea has a special feature: the difference between its high and low tide is in some places as much as forty feet. Use of this difference for the generation of electricity by construction of dams at the narrow entrances of bays may add several million kilowatts to the capacity of her electric plants.

Korea is also rich in mineral ores. Her known reserves of iron ore are more than one billion tons. Only a small part of these ores have a high iron content, but much of the lower-grade ore can be exploited commercially. Recently new discoveries of high-grade ores have been reported. Korea is also rich in such light metals as magnesium, lithium and aluminum, and in lead, zinc, gold, graphite, mica and other ores and minerals. Although some of these ores are not of the highest grade, they are sufficient to build in Korea a modern industry on a level with many advanced European countries. The sleeping dragons of the Korean mountains may once more help Korea, this time in her struggle to uplift her population. They have been aroused by the present war and should not be permitted to fall asleep again.

## AN ANCIENT NATION

Korean legendary history starts with a superhuman being, Tan Gun, the ruler of Korea more than 4,000 years ago. This Tan Gun and later his son ruled Korea for twelve centuries. The next stage in Korean history is more credible. It is said that in 1122 B.C. a Chinese noble, Ki Tse (in Korean, Kys-se), dissatisfied with a change of dynasty, emigrated from China to Korea, with 5,000 followers who brought with them the Chinese arts and crafts. They taught the Koreans the arts of agriculture, the construction of houses and the raising of silkworms. This legend has a historical basis. The Koreans, who in appearance are less Mongolian than the Chinese, yet taller than the Japanese, represent a people distinct from their neighbors, but much of their civilization came from China. Civil wars in China frequently sent to Korea waves of refugees who brought the natives new skills and arts.

We know with certainty that in 108 B.C. the northern part of the peninsula was conquered by the Emperor Wu Ti of the Han dynasty of China. A few decades later we find three kingdoms on the territory of Korea—Koguryu, Paekche and Silla. They frequently engaged in bitter struggles between themselves and with the Japanese. In the first century A.D. the Chinese method of writing came into use in Koguryu and a few centuries later spread to Paekche and Silla. In the fourth century the first two kingdoms embraced Buddhism and a century later Silla followed their example. These innovations greatly helped Korean civilization. Chinese practical sciences, philosophy and art were rapidly mastered by the Koreans. Korea already had a tradition of art, and under Chinese influence her artisans produced original works of great beauty and charm.

In the sixth and seventh centuries the Chinese attempted the conquest of the Korean states, but were repelled. In 660 Silla,



with China's aid, conquered Paekche and later Koguryu, and this northern state came to an end after more than 700 years of independence. Silla absorbed the other two states and, as an ally and tributary of China, reigned supreme in the peninsula.

Korea then enjoyed peace for more than two centuries. During this period many Koreans received their education in China, some were employed in the service of the Chinese Emperor in high positions, the country itself prospered, and there was calm "within the four seas." This was the golden age of Korean art, architecture and literature.

### UNIFICATION OF KINGDOM

The decline of the Tang dynasty in China, suzerain of Korea, brought a rebellion in Korea. Wang Kien, a subordinate Korean officer, was its leader and by 919 he became the ruler of northern and central Korea with a capital at Songdo, a few miles from the present Seoul. In 935 Wang Kien defeated the forces of Silla and formed the Korea we know now, except that its territory then extended beyond the Yalu. His realm was named Koryu, from which we get the name "Korea." His descendants ruled Korea until 1392.

This was another brilliant period of Korean history. The country was centrally governed by a board of ministers under the king; it was divided into eight provinces each ruled by a governor, *Kam-sa*. Many young men studied the classics, literature and art in China, and from that time on an educated Korean knew the Chinese classics as the Chinese scholars knew them. Books in Chinese characters were printed from blocks of wood. Beautiful Buddhist temples, pagodas and monasteries were built and Buddhism became the established religion.

In 1218 Korea was devastated by Mongol horsemen and in 1260 the Korean king was compelled to recognize the overlordship of the Mongol Great Khan. Korean princesses were married to Mongol chiefs. In 1274 and 1281 Korea supplied ships and men for Kublai Khan's ill-fated expedition against Japan. The



Mother and child on a Korean farm.

Mongols were expelled from China in 1368 and twenty-four years later the last descendant of Wang Kien lost his throne.

The new king, former General Yi Syeng-kyei, known later as Yi Tai-jo, was the commander of the old king's troops, who revolted because of the decadence and internal corruption of the old regime. Yi reorganized the government; the Buddhist monasteries, which enjoyed great wealth and political influ-

ence, were deprived of their privileges and the cult of Confucius became the official religion. Appointments to office rested on personal merit as shown in competitive literary examinations, and this increased interest in the Confucian classics. The feudal powers of great landholders were curtailed; feudal levies were replaced by a royal army and it is even asserted that taxes were reduced. The new king built a new capital, Hanyang, which became known by the name of Seoul, i.e. simply "capital." The thoroughfares of the new capital were made broad, and a wall, fifteen miles in circumference, was built around it. A large part of this wall still exists. It is not so high and massive as the wall of Peking, but it is more picturesque because it follows the hills, climbing to the summits, dropping to the bottom of the valleys. It is 25 to 40 feet in height, has battlements all along it and eight arched gates with high tiled towers and curving gables.

#### CHINESE INFLUENCE

Korea's tributary position in relation to China should not be over-emphasized. Many countries at that time recognized Chinese suzerainty; it was an honorable position. Once a year a Korean embassy appeared at the Chinese court with presents and, as the Koreans assert with a smile, this embassy brought home more presents from the Chinese Emperor than were sent! But undoubtedly Chinese influence in Korea was strong. Korea used the Chinese calendar. Their system of examinations, the "complaint box" into which any subject could drop a petition to the king, the cult of Confucius—these and many other institutions came from China. But Koreans also made innovations of their own. They invented and used movable metal type and they invented an alphabet, *on-mun*, not syllabic like the Chinese script but a genuine phonetic alphabet, well adapted to the peculiarities of the Korean language. Under the new dynasty the national costume underwent a change, and white became, as it still is, the characteristic color of Korean dress. The styles of hats and hair-dressing have not changed since then.

Korea enjoyed relative prosperity and peace for almost 200 years but her peace was broken by the Japanese. Though the Korean seacoast often suffered from Japanese pirates, the governments somehow would patch up relations, and the Japanese were not molested in Fusan, where they had a trading center. However, in 1590 Hideyoshi, the actual ruler of Japan, informed the Korean king of his plans to conquer China and demanded free passage for his troops on the way to China. The Koreans, faithful to their obligations to China, sent an indignant reply. On May 25, 1592, the first Japanese contingent landed in Fusan.

### JAPAN'S FIRST OCCUPATION

War continued for seven years. The Japanese were at first successful, but when Chinese reinforcements arrived they were gradually driven back. Considerable help was rendered by the Korean invention of armored vessels. By the time Hideyoshi died, the Japanese were ready to give up the costly effort, and they withdrew. During their occupation they had taken to Japan many thousands of Korean artisans and scholars, as well as immense riches from palaces, temples, monasteries, libraries and private homes. The country was laid waste by seven years of war, famine, pillage and disease. Probably as many as a million people perished, and hatred of the Japanese remained in Korean hearts for centuries. Twenty-eight years later, in 1627, the Chinese Emperor asked Korean help against the Manchus. Again the Koreans were faithful to their obligations, and again they suffered for it. Their capital was captured and pillaged, their countryside devastated, and their king compelled to recognize the overlordship of the Manchus, who soon became the masters of China. But again, though each year an embassy of Koreans went to Peking with presents, Korea was free from interference in her internal affairs.

In the outer world Korea was forgotten for almost 250 years; it became a hermit kingdom which did not welcome foreigners to its shores. The shores themselves, uncharted and unexplored,

looked inhospitable; many ships were wrecked on their rocks.

During the early nineteenth century, Christianity had made headway in Korea, but the rulers, suspicious of everything foreign, put to death native Christians and missionaries. This act, as well as her unwillingness to open the country to foreigners, soon brought Korea into conflict with other powers. Finally, when the Korean king was unable to secure help from China, he signed a treaty of commerce and friendship with Japan in 1876. This was soon followed by treaties with the United States (1882) and with other powers. In these treaties Korea was dealt with as an independent, sovereign country. But China did not intend to give up her rights over Korea, and this led to the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95.

### ENTER WESTERN IDEAS

Korea was at that time, like other Asiatic countries, an absolute monarchy where the will of the king was law. The monarchy was weakened by internal decay and by the impact of Western power then sweeping over the Far East. The country was governed by a bureaucracy appointed not so much by examination as through bribes or court influence; the people were oppressed, the army undisciplined, the law out of date and ineffective. Under the influence of Western ideas a movement for sweeping reforms started among the Korean upper classes. The government tried to repress it, and the revolutionary leaders appealed to Japan for help. Soon they discovered, however, that the Japanese government was less interested in reforms than in domination. The Sino-Japanese War was ostensibly fought for the independence of Korea, but by the end of the war the king found himself a virtual prisoner of the Japanese. At this point Russia began to show a special interest in Korea. In 1896 the king of Korea escaped from the Japanese guards to the Russian legation with the seal of state and for a year he ruled the country from there.

The Japanese, who insisted that Korea was an independent

country, could do nothing about this for the time being, but they started preparations for a war with Russia. The Russo-Japanese War was also fought ostensibly for the independence of Korea, yet the Koreans were only involuntary spectators. In 1905 Korea was made a Japanese protectorate in spite of Korean protests and in disregard of all Japanese promises and treaty obligations. Defeated China and Russia could not help her, and other powers welcomed the Japanese protectorate. Several rebellions broke out in Korea, but all of them were suppressed by Japan's superior forces and in 1910 Korea was annexed by Japan. In the Imperial Rescript of Annexation the Koreans were promised by the Japanese Emperor "growing prosperity and welfare" and the annexation was described as "a fresh guarantee of enduring peace in the Orient."

#### JAPAN TAKES OVER

These promises were not kept. As will be shown later, during the forty years of Japanese domination, Korea has had no increase in either prosperity or welfare. Moreover, the Japanese ruled Korea with a heavy hand. The governors-general were selected from among the most ardent imperialists; the military police were all-powerful. Korean organizations were dissolved, and the partisans of reform were imprisoned or escaped abroad.

The Korean people did not become reconciled to their loss of freedom. In 1919 the funeral of the former Emperor was made the occasion for a tremendous demonstration. Korean representatives prepared a declaration of independence which was read in every city and village; huge demonstrations were held and Korean flags were waved amid shouts of "Long live Korea!" It was a peaceful demonstration, but it was drowned in blood by the Japanese administration, which was taken completely by surprise. Disturbed by the events of 1919, the Japanese attempted to win over the upper groups of Koreans by some concessions, but the attempt on the whole was unsuccessful, and the country continued to be ruled by force. The number of policemen was



larger than the number of teachers. Liberals, socialists, Communists and, in general, all persons suspected of harboring "dangerous thoughts" were hunted down, arrested by scores and hundreds and tortured by Japanese police. Yet their places were soon taken by others, and again and again the police were compelled to make wholesale arrests.

During the "liberal" rule of Admiral Saito men of property were given the right to participate in the election of advisory bodies in cities and provinces and the official propaganda line was that the Koreans were "junior brothers" of the Japanese. But the realities of life were stronger than official propaganda. All administrative positions of any importance, practically all industry, communications and banks were in Japanese hands. Is it then astonishing that all the arrests could not wipe out dis-



Street scene in Seoul. Main fire station is in background, police booth in front.

satisfaction and that the Koreans still cherished a hope of national independence?

During the Japanese administration almost all traces of foreign influence have been wiped out. The trade of Korea has been almost exclusively with Japan. Foreign entrepreneurs have had no chance to compete with Japanese. Any Korean who studied abroad was looked upon with suspicion, and almost the only channel through which foreign ideas could still reach Koreans was the Christian missions, which in spite of all restrictions succeeded in building up strong church organizations.

This short survey of Korean history shows that various forces took part in shaping the character and culture of the Korean people. The strongest outside influence was that of China, bringing Buddhism and Confucianism. The Mongol invasion also was not without influence; under Mongol rule the power of the kings became stronger, the centralization of government greater, and the treatment of criminals harsher. Japan could not influence Korea much because she herself received much of her culture from or through Korea, though in the last forty years Japan has been a vehicle through which Western knowledge and ideas filtered into Korea. Any new fashion in Japan, whether liberalism, Communism or some new literary school, soon found its followers in Korea.

However, one should not exaggerate all these influences. The masses of the population have been illiterate, tax-burdened, frequently out of touch with the governing groups which followed the new fashions. Buddhism and Confucianism penetrated deeply, but failed to suppress or destroy the animistic beliefs of the people. Official literature could not supplant the rich folklore of the Korean villages, while in art the Korean blended Chinese ideas with native. As a result a Korean is unlike both the Japanese and the Chinese in his language, appearance, dress and habits. Korea is a distinct nation proud of its traditions, its culture and its individuality.

## KOREA'S PEOPLE

The latest census of the population in Korea, taken in 1940, reported 24,326,000 persons. The natural increase of population since then must equal about 900,000, and the total population of the country probably has passed the 25,000,000 mark. Of these only 600,000 are Japanese. There are also in Korea several thousand Chinese and a few hundred persons of other nationalities. Japanese residents are chiefly administrators, business managers, soldiers, policemen or merchants. They are the masters for the time being and monopolize the masters' occupations. Only a few thousand of them are connected with the land. The Chinese are chiefly merchants. Their families are in China and they are not permanent settlers. The other foreigners are missionaries, merchants and consular officials. Thus Korea has no minority problem—it is a country populated almost exclusively by Koreans.

Japanese domination brought a very important change in the distribution of the Korean population. More than a million Koreans are now in Japan, where they earn their living as coal miners, as farm hands, and in many other ways. About a million Koreans have settled in neighboring Manchuria, and in one district next to the Korean frontier (Chientao) they form a majority of the population. Two hundred thousand Koreans are found in the Soviet Union, 100,000 in China and 20,000 elsewhere. Thus the total number of Koreans residing outside of Korea is now about 2,500,000, or 10 per cent of the population. These Koreans preserve their language and customs and if conditions of life improve in their country, many will doubtless wish to come back from Japan and Manchuria, where they are at best just permitted to exist.

The natural increase in the population of Korea is about 1.1 per cent annually, which is greater than that of any European country (Russia excluded) and as great as some of the American

republics. But the American republics have a sparse population; they are young countries and a rapid increase of their population may be desirable. Korea, on the other hand, is an old country, densely populated, where there is not much room for newcomers. The density of population in 1940 was 285 persons per square mile as compared with 44 in the United States and 283 in the state of New York (including New York City). Because Korea is a poor country, the rapid growth of her population represents a very serious problem, which must be tackled by her government when she becomes independent.

Administratively Korea is divided into thirteen provinces, of which the southern ones are chiefly agricultural in character and the northern ones industrial. The population is more dense in the south than in the north, chiefly because the terrain and climatic conditions in the north are less favorable for agricultural pursuits.

Korea is a country of villages. As late as 1940 less than 15 per cent of the total population lived in cities with a population of 15,000 or more. But urbanization is growing and the capital of the country, Seoul (in Japanese, Keijo), now has a population of about a million, while the next city, Pyongyang (in Japanese, Heijo) is around 300,000.

## CHANGING CUSTOMS

If all peoples of the world dressed alike, ate the same kind of food, professed the same religion, had the same customs, habits and thoughts, there would be no nationalities as we know them. Every nationality has developed certain particular types of dress, special ways of preparing food, certain customs, beliefs and ways of thinking which make a Chinese unlike an Englishman and a Japanese different from a Korean. National customs are now slowly becoming more alike, more cosmopolitan, but this process as yet has only begun to affect Korea.

Old Korea was a country which in spite of nearness and many cultural borrowings was unlike both China and Japan. But new

economic conditions, newspapers, advertisements and one of the greatest leveling forces, moving pictures, are producing the same results in Korea as elsewhere. Old Korea has begun to disappear. Old customs and beliefs are gradually giving way to modern beliefs and prejudices, to modern dress, modern schools and modern ways of life. Old Korea, however, is still strong. Agriculture is still the main occupation, and farmers are usually conservative folk. What one could see in Korea of old, when it was a "hermit kingdom," one can still see today in Korea, though less in the cities than in the villages.

### FOOD HABITS

Some travelers assert that Koreans are enormous eaters. It is true that they enjoy their food and like to eat heartily when they can, but they are not always able to gratify this taste. Meat is rare. Few other countries have such a small number of cattle and poultry per head of population. In 1938 there were in Korea 0.56 head of cattle, 0.49 pigs and 2.35 fowls *per farm*. Cattle in Korea are used for work in the fields rather than for food. It is very difficult for the Koreans to be enormous eaters under these conditions. Even rice, the cereal which they like most, they are compelled to export to Japan, so that their own consumption of rice is falling.

The Koreans eat millet, beans, barley, potatoes and vegetables, especially radishes. They season their foods abundantly with mustard, garlic and cayenne pepper, and what a Korean lacks in rice and fish he makes up for with pepper. The main meal of a Korean consists of rice—or if he is poor, millet—cabbage, radishes in salt water, dried fish cut into thin pieces, cayenne pepper soup, all with a very strong odor. A tasty pickle, based on Korean cabbage, is part of the daily diet. Among their dainties are dried seaweed, shrimps, pine seeds, lily bulbs and boiled pork with rice wine. Koreans are the only people in this part of Asia who are not tea-drinkers. They prefer rice-water and infusions of sugar and orange peel.



## KOREAN HOMES

The houses of the Korean poor (and this means about 90 per cent of the population) are small and simply built. First wooden posts are planted firmly in the ground; then the beams supporting the roof are placed between them and the cross beams are fitted into notches on top of the posts. The roof is made of straw or reeds. The walls are formed by filling the space between the posts with stone or wattle and plastering it with mud outside and in. The inside walls are often covered with white paper, and the windows are also made of paper. The floor, which serves also as a bed, is covered with thick yellow oil paper. Beneath the floor are flues through which hot air from a wood fire circulates, making the floor not only warm, but at times so hot that you may awake in the morning to find yourself well fried.

In central and southern Korea forests are few and firewood is expensive. And yet no respectable farmer will give his cattle food which is not cooked. The Japanese masters, on the lookout for all possible economies, worked hard to convince the Koreans that their animals did not need the luxury of cooked food. But the Koreans are an obstinate people and continue to hold that even if they themselves were treated as cattle by the Japanese, at least their cattle should be treated as human beings.

The houses of the rich are roofed with tiles and they have special apartments for entertaining friends. But however poor a Korean house and its inhabitants are, a traveler on the road, whether a Korean or a foreigner, is welcomed and given the best food to be found in the house.

Before the house of a rich man there will be a square with a beautiful fountain and fish pond in which quaint fish of gold and silver and vermilion move slowly before the eyes of the spectator. There will be a garden with shady walks and pensive nooks inviting you to rest and contemplation. The Koreans are masters of this art. There are no chairs in the houses and the host and the guests sit on the floor cross-legged for hours, a practice which is trying for foreigners.



Korean homes, rich and poor alike, are open to everybody, except for the quarters of the women, into which no man from the outside dares to enter—except the investigating Japanese policeman! Everyone is always welcome in Korean homes, and conversation is going on all the time. Korean people do not see any reason to hurry through life—they prefer to enjoy it as they go along. Moreover, there are no newspapers except in the cities, and these are published by the Japanese. But the Koreans have their own time-honored means of spreading information, and news travels quickly through neighborly gossip. There is no doubt that lively discussions have been going on in Korean houses, discussions of what Japanese defeat will mean to Koreans.

### HOW KOREANS DRESS

Throughout Korea after nightfall you may hear a low tapping sound—tap-tap-tap, tap-tap-tap. It is not the sound of a modern machine—it is gentler, less regular, more human. This sound means that Korean women are at work. Their husbands wear snow-white clothes and every Korean woman tries her best not to be behind other women in keeping them clean and white. These clothes have been washed in the stream which passes somewhere through or near the village, and now the woman is squatting on the ground before a large board and beating the man's dress with two pieces of wood, one in each hand. It is the Korean way of ironing. How much additional work these white garments involve for every Korean woman! Japanese officials have tried to persuade the Koreans to change from the impractical white to other colors, and Japanese textile manufacturers have been especially interested because dyed materials are more expensive. But again we see that the Koreans are a stubborn people and the Japanese arguments do not move them.

A Korean man wears baggy trousers and one or more short or long coats, with perhaps an extra coat for ceremonial occasions, depending on the means of the owner. All this is crowned with a hat, under which one will find an inner cap and then a



Ironing in Korea is done with wooden beaters on a stone block.

headband. The shoes are made of cloth with leather soles. The women wear one or more skirts, usually white or pale blue, with short bodices, which may also be colored. In the winter men and women wear padded coats.

Not all Korean clothes are white or blue. Korea is a country of chubby, smiling children, who are liked by everyone and who know that they are liked. On gala occasions the children are dressed in the brightest colors imaginable, so that a crowd of them reminds one of a carpet of wild flowers where crimson and blue and orange and violet are brilliantly mingled. Moreover, every man, woman or child in Korea in summer time has a fan made of colored paper, which has been soaked in oil so that when held against the sun it looks like the stained glass in a cathedral. Korean women understand how to make themselves beautiful with silks, ribbons, lipstick and rouge. They have an inborn charm and grace, and a feeling for the good things of this world. Korean shops in Seoul display a profusion of corals,

stones, ribbons, lacquered boxes inlaid with mother-of-pearl and exquisite embroideries. The owner of the store, smoking a pipe with a yard-long stem, will sit quietly in a corner while you admire all his beautiful wares: high-pressure salesmanship is beneath his dignity.

## STATUS OF WOMEN

Here something may be said about the position of women in Korea. Although not high, it is somewhat higher than in most Oriental countries. In the Confucian scheme of things a woman occupies an inferior position. She cannot sacrifice to the gods, she cannot carry on the family line—although she can and does keep her own name after marriage. No special joy is expressed when a girl is born except when there are already boys in the family who will continue the family name. In the old days upper-class women were kept in seclusion and seldom appeared on the streets, but with the spread of education this custom is breaking down. Among the lower classes it has never been in vogue because working women must go out to work in the fields and to wash clothes in the streams.

The fact that wives do not share the social life of their husbands has created a special class of women, *keesang*, who sing, dance, and in other ways entertain their rich patrons. The concubines about whom one hears so much in stories of the Orient are also a privilege in which only the rich can indulge. The masses of Korean men are monogamists.

The man occupies a dominant position in the Korean family. In the middle and upper groups of Korean society his word is law for his wife and children, and he may spend his time in idleness smoking his long pipe and chattering with other men at the corner, while his wife is at home busy with the household. In the farming communities the position of the woman is somewhat better simply because there is more scope for her activities.

The average Korean family has five or six members. Thus it



Two hostesses, keesangs, in a restaurant show the proper way for women to sit.

is larger than the average American family of today, but about the same size as the American family of the frontier seventy or eighty years ago. Rich Korean families, however, often include several generations, with fifteen or twenty members, living together in one household.

Sons are welcome in the family because it is they who continue the family name, and the birth of a girl is not an occasion for congratulations. A wife who does not bear sons is held in contempt. On the whole the position of women in the old Korea is not a particularly happy one. This situation is rapidly changing, especially in the cities; but still the old customs and ideas are strong.

### RELIGIONS MINGLE

Korea is unique among Oriental countries in that she has no dominant religion though according to the census Christianity has more adherents than any other faith. Probably the original native religion was shamanism, which is still strong. Near the

villages one often sees spirit posts which remind one of Alaskan totem poles. A Korean is surrounded by spirits, of whom some are kind, but many are malignant and in need of propitiation. Dr. G. H. Jones writes: "In Korean belief, earth, air, and sea are peopled by demons. They haunt every umbrageous tree, shady ravine, crystal spring, and mountain crest. . . . They are on the roof, ceiling, fireplace, kang, and beam. . . . In thousands they waylay the traveler as he leaves home, beside him, behind him. . . . They touch the Korean at every point in his life . . . they avenge every omission with merciless severity, keeping him under the yoke of bondage from birth to death." The demons are probably less numerous and their influence less overpowering now than when Dr. Jones wrote, yet they are still alive in popular belief. On many occasions a shaman's help is needed to propitiate them, and the shaman's services are apt to be expensive.

#### CHINA'S RELIGIOUS HERITAGE

From China Buddhism, Taoism, and Confucianism have come to Korea. Buddhism at one time was the state religion, but it was disestablished by the end of the fourteenth century and declined in influence, though in the number of its registered followers it ranks next to Christianity. Buddhist monks are vegetarians, because they are forbidden to take life, and, in theory at least, they observe celibacy. Their heads are shaved and so they are easily recognizable in a Korean crowd. Buddhist temples are usually found in picturesque, secluded spots in the mountains, from which a delightful view opens on the valley below. The temples are surrounded by beautiful gardens and in the shade of centuries-old trees pilgrims enjoy the cool air and quiet of the mountains. The monks of such temples are great philosophers and connoisseurs of good wine, and a visit to a temple in Korea may be compared with a visit to a mountain resort in the United States, though the architecture of the modern resorts cannot stand comparison with the beauty and exquisite workmanship of these Buddhist temples.



Confucianism is still strong in Korea, but as it is a philosophical system rather than a religion, its practice is often combined with propitiation of demons.

Korea has also a number of native sects which combine elements of the imported religions with some original features. Among these are Tendo ("the Way of Heaven," in Japanese), Jindo, and others. The strongest of them, Tendo, is credited with less than 100,000 followers. It has some social and political elements and has played a part in several rebellions.

### CHRISTIANITY A STRONG FORCE

Christianity first appeared in Korea at the end of the eighteenth century and gradually spread despite persecution. Now there are more than half a million members of various Christian churches, and a considerable part of this achievement is due to the efforts of the American missionaries. If it had not been for the repressive measures of the Japanese who, fearful of foreign influence, curtailed many non-religious activities of the Christian churches, the number might be greater. The Christians have built many churches and schools, and were pioneers of modern education in Korea. Before the start of the present war they had strong organizations which may weather the present storm.

The Japanese have had a definite religious policy in Korea. This policy has been (1) the support and revival of all ancient creeds and beliefs; (2) opposition to modern Western influences; (3) propagation of the Japanese religion, Shinto. They restored and supported 106 memorial halls and mausoleums of the founders and rulers of Korea and performed sacrificial ceremonies at them, just as they supported the annual sacrifices at 44 shrines of ancient sages and scholars. They restored many Buddhist temples and supported them and made many efforts to spread in Korea Japanese sects of Buddhism. They also encouraged Confucianism—a conservative force in Korean society.

They discouraged Christianity and Christian organizations had to contend with numerous obstacles. The Japanese sneered at





Gate and steps leading to a Japanese Shinto shrine in Korea.

what they called "ten-cent Christians," meaning that the Korean converts turned to Christianity for the sake of material advantages. However, efforts to convert the Koreans to Shintoism were not particularly successful. In 1939 only 21,000 Koreans were registered as Shintoists, though certainly a Korean had a better chance to derive material advantages from embracing Shintoism than from embracing Christianity.

As mentioned above, no one religion predominates in Korea. The official figures on followers of all religions total only one million, the remaining twenty-four million are unclassified. In fact, like other Oriental peoples, Koreans find it quite possible to practice two or even three religions at once, now paying their respects at one temple, now at another. When a Korean villager is in trouble he may apply first to his own village gods, because this is the least expensive course. If this does not help, he may give alms at a Buddhist temple or ask a Buddhist priest to intervene for him. In case of sickness in the family a modern physi-

cian may be consulted; but if none is available, or if the patient fails to respond to his treatment, then some shaman may be brought in to enlist the aid of the invisible forces. Probably the new converts to Christianity also from time to time apply for the help of the old gods and demons. Religious tolerance and flexibility have on the whole been characteristic of Korea, and this was a great help to Western missionaries, for they did not have to meet the opposition of an established church.

### BURIAL TRADITIONS

A few words should be said about Korean graves because in this case one may see how shamanistic, Buddhist, Taoist and Confucian ideas have been fused. Like China, Korea is a country where great respect is paid to ancestors, and ancestral graves form a prominent part of the landscape. Selection of the proper place for a grave is in the hands of a special profession known as geomancy. Many persons during their lifetime give much thought to selecting the proper place for their own graves and spend large sums on geomancers. When the head of the family dies, he is not carried at once to the grave—such haste would be improper. His corpse may remain for quite a few days in the house, the time depending upon the financial status of the family: the poorer the family, the less time for the propitiation of spirits. Then the funeral procession starts with lanterns and loud wailings. The son mourns for three years. White is the color of mourning and it has been suggested that Koreans always dress in white because their periods of mourning were so long that no sooner had one ended than another began.

But Korea is now in a period of transition and many old customs and beliefs are being discarded or weakened. The sites of the graves, for instance have always been considered sacred and the quiet of the graves could not be disturbed for any reason. Mining operations in the hills and mountains were often impossible because they would disturb the peace of the gods and spirits. But since 1933 the Korean landowners, forgetting about

the gods, spirits and the graves of their forefathers, have rushed to mine gold in the hills and mountains of Korea. The gold fever happened to be stronger than the hand of the dead.

Another example of the crumbling of old customs is that today girls and boys who study together sometimes fall in love and marry in spite of all family protests. Traditionally, marriages are arranged by the elders. Again, a Korean working in a factory cannot wear mourning dress with a hat four feet wide which covers his face. The new economic conditions brought by the Japanese to Korea are breaking down old customs, beliefs and superstitions. Korea is entering modern history. Much of the old will be saved in this process, much will be lost irrevocably. Let us hope that the customs preserved will be those which were the most beautiful.

### CHANGES IN EDUCATION

Korea has always been a country of scholars. Nothing in Chinese culture made so great and deep an impression upon the Koreans as the respect for learning which Confucianism brought to Korea. Before the advent of the Japanese, however, the Korean system of education, like that of China, had changed little for centuries. It could not satisfy modern needs. Modern education, before the Japanese annexation, had made only a modest beginning.

Japan set up a modern school system which, however, was founded on the principles of uniformity and control. All schools, whether public or private, must correspond to certain standards established by the Japanese government. These standards cover not only sanitary conditions, wages and similar details, but they also establish how many teachers should be Japanese, what subjects they should teach, and what should be taught in every subject. Deviations from the regulations are not permitted.

What have been the aims of Japan's educational policy in Korea? "Hitherto," Governor General Terauchi announced in 1910, "many young men of this country have been led by the



Bronze bell from an ancient Buddhist monastery.

erroneous method pursued, to dislike work and indulge in useless and empty talk. In future, attention should be paid to the removal of this evil as well as to instilling in the minds of the young men detestation of idleness, and love of real work, thrift and diligence."

Later ordinances advised students not to indulge in "vain arguments." They insisted also that "the fostering of loyalty

and filial piety shall be made the basic principle of education, and the cultivation of moral sentiments shall be given special attention. . . . It is only what may be expected of a loyal and dutiful man, who knows what is demanded of a subject and a son, that he should be faithful to his duties." Thus the picture is clear: the Japanese government wanted the Koreans to become diligent workers, loyal to their new masters, faithful to their duties, and not inclined to "empty" talk and to "vain" arguments.

### JAPANESE LANGUAGE TAUGHT

All instruction of Korean pupils, from the very first day of school, is conducted in the Japanese language, which few Korean children know or understand. The difference between the Korean and Japanese languages is greater than the difference between French and German, so that about half of the total number of lessons in the primary school must be given to study of the Japanese language.

In the primary schools about 40 per cent of the teachers are Japanese and in other schools they make up almost three-quarters of the total number. Formerly the teachers appeared in the classes in uniform, with swords at their sides—in order to instill awe and admiration into their students. This comedy was stopped after the Korean rebellion of 1919, but the general spirit prevailing in the schools was not changed.

Let us look at the teaching schedule of the schools. In the third year of the primary school, for example, the time-table is as follows: out of a total of 30 hours a week, 12 hours were given to the Japanese language, 3 hours to Korean (the teaching of Korean was stopped completely during the war, according to some reports), 6 hours to arithmetic (taught in the Japanese language), one hour to morals (see below), one hour to drawing, one hour to singing of Japanese hymns and other songs, 2 hours to gymnastics and 2 hours to sewing for the girls and manual work for the boys. A majority of the students in a

Korean school do not go beyond the third grade: education is not compulsory and parents are in need of their children's work. The Japanese authorities planned to introduce compulsory general education after 1946.

Let us take the sixth grade—the highest in the primary school. Out of 30 hours a week, the students of this grade had in 1936 9 hours of the Japanese language, 3 hours of Korean, 2 hours of Japanese history, 2 hours of Japanese and Manchurian geography, 4 hours of arithmetic (fractions, percentages and use of the abacus), 2 hours of natural science and one hour of morals, plus drawing, singing, manual work and gymnastics, which now consists entirely of military drill.

Altogether there were 138 lessons in "morals" in such a school curriculum. Of these, 58 were occupied with exhortations to be patient, diligent, honest, orderly, faithful and to have good manners. Another 27 hours were given to Emperor-worship, the duty of paying taxes and similar subjects. This was theoretical preparation for the daily practice of Emperor-worship in every school throughout the length and breadth of the Japanese Empire. Fourteen lessons were given to exhortations to remember the duty of filial piety—the old Confucian principle. Nineteen lessons implanted the feeling of friendliness to one's neighbors and the proper way to greet them. And in one lesson the children were taught that everyone should have a trade and earn his living.

### HIGH RATIO OF JAPANESE STUDENTS

Every Japanese boy of school age in Korea attended school, but only about one out of every four Korean children of school age was in school. But this is not the end of the story. In 1937, there were almost a million students in the primary schools of all types. In all other kinds of schools, except colleges and universities, there were only 70,000 students, and of this number about half were Japanese. The higher we ascend the ladder of education, the smaller are the opportunities for Koreans. In the colleges there were in the same year only 4,000 students and



the majority of the colleges were supported not by the Japanese government, but by American and British missionaries. In the only government university in Korea, in Seoul, there were 350 Japanese students and 206 Korean students, though the Japanese in Korea form less than 3 per cent of the total population.

Very few Korean students had enough money or could obtain passports to go to the United States to study in American universities, but thousands of them have gone to Japan. Most of them studied law and medicine, not because they necessarily preferred these subjects, but because the professions of lawyer and doctor in Korea permit a graduate to start his own business without capital. If you are an engineer, you must either seek employment in a Japanese factory, or open your own factory. Before this war very few Koreans could get positions in Japanese factories or could afford to start their own.

The war brought important changes in that respect, as will be shown below, but the main features of the Japanese system remained. Japan's educational record in Korea has not been bad, measured by the standards usually applied in colonial countries. But it has done little to prepare the people to run their own industries and their own government in a democratic manner. The new, free Korea will face the tremendous task of overhauling the whole Japanese system of education, and expanding and improving it to meet the needs of the country.

## AGRICULTURE AND INDUSTRY

From time immemorial the Koreans have been famous throughout the Far East as rice growers. In Manchuria, where the Chinese for years raised only soy beans and sorghum, the Koreans succeeded in raising rice. In the Russian Maritime Province it was the Koreans who raised rice, and they raised it so well that the Russians moved many of them from this province to Soviet Middle Asia, where there are many fields suitable for rice-growing.

The Koreans are expert rice producers. But as a rule they themselves see little or no rice on their tables. Some people have asserted that the Koreans prefer the taste of Manchurian millet to that of Korean rice. But actually they see even less Manchurian millet on their tables than Korean rice.

The cultivated area of Korea is 11,000,000 acres, and there are in Korea over 3,000,000 farms. Thus the *average* size of a farm is less than four acres. In the United States the number of farms is only twice as large as in Korea, but the acreage is almost one hundred times as large; this means that an average American farm has an acreage forty-eight times as large as an average farm in Korea.

It sounds impossible to make a living on such a tiny farm. The Koreans can, it is true, raise two or sometimes even three crops a year (although in the north the winters are too cold for more than one). But according to a Japanese official publication the *representative* farmer in Korea has a shortage of foodstuffs every year. Spring is known in Korea as a "poverty season" because by that time the grain bins of the farmers are empty.

Very few animals are used on Korean farms either as draft animals or as sources of meat and dairy products. Animals compete with man for the scanty supply of food. The number of horses in Korea is 50,000 and the number of cattle is 1,700,000.

On the whole, we may say that only one farm out of four has a horse or an ox. This saves fodder but it also means that Koreans must be their own beasts of burden. Rice, especially when grown on irrigated land, yields more per acre than either wheat or barley, and rice is the predominant crop in Korea. Finally, the American farmer cultivates only about one-third of the land in his possession, the rest being either pasture, forest or fallow land. In Korea every bit of available land is used for crops.

But in the United States the farmers form less than 20 per cent of the total population, while in Korea they make up about two-thirds of the population. Thus even if the average farmer in the United States were very poor, the general picture would still remain good; but in Korea the farmers *are* very poor, and they form a majority of the whole population. This is the fundamental fact of Korean economy. Korea is a poor country and for a number of years will remain a poor country.

#### SOCIAL CURBS ON AGRICULTURE

Unfortunately, the situation is worse than the average figures suggest. There is a grave social cleavage in the Korean villages. About two-thirds of the land in Korea is in the hands of land-owners, who make up only about 2 per cent of the population. Independent farmers as we know them in the United States form only one-sixth of the total number of farmers and own less than a quarter of the total cultivated area. What does this mean in human terms? It means that the majority of Korean farmers, who are tenants, from their very modest crop must give to the land-owners at least 40 per cent of the crop, and in a great many cases as much as 50 or 60 per cent. If the average gross value of production per farm in Korea is about \$150, and the tenant pays nearly half for the use of the land, one can see how little he has left to live on, and to pay his taxes. Taxes are high in Korea, and taxes on rented land are paid by the tenant, not the landowner. After the farmer has paid his rent and his taxes, so little remains for the farmer that in order to make both ends meet he must



This farmer near Seikan is one of few to have an ox for the ploughing. borrow from his landlord, or, more rarely, from an outsider. In Korea the interest on such debts is so high that once you get into debt it is very difficult if not impossible to get out of it.

The result of these conditions is slow but progressive deterioration. In 1918, 40 per cent of the farmers owned their own land, while in 1938, twenty years later, the number was less than 24 per cent. Tenant farmers—owning *none* of the land they cultivate—increased in the same period from 38 to more than 50 per cent of the total. In 1938, out of every hundred families working on the land, only 18 were farmer-owners. All the others were either full tenants, part tenants (owning a little land and renting the rest), laborers or *kademin*—squatters who roam around, clear up a patch of land in the forest, harvest one crop and then move again.

The Japanese administration in Korea did nothing to prevent this process; on the contrary, the impoverishment of Korean farmers was in line with their general policy. Korea was looked upon as a supplier of rice for the people of Japan. The fact that

in the spring perhaps a million farmers in Korea were forced to collect the bark of trees and the roots of grasses did not matter. Before the war Korea sent to Japan about 40,000,000 bushels of rice each year, supplying about 10 per cent of Japanese consumption. But if Japan was to get this amount of rice every year from Korea, it was in the interests of Japan to have landownership concentrated in a few hands. A landlord cannot eat all of the rice which he collects from his tenants—he sells it to Japanese firms. The farmer-owner and the tenant farmer have so little rice left after meeting all their obligations that they consume all their rice, and would consume more if they could get it. Parallel with the impoverishment of the farmers and the increase of tenancy, the per capita consumption of rice in Korea has been falling from year to year. Koreans produce rice, but they do not eat it—their per capita consumption of rice is barely one-third of that in Japan.

What are the results of this situation for agriculture? Stagnation, and in some cases retrogression. Just as slavery is not consistent with high productivity of labor, the conditions of Korean agriculture are not conducive to progress. The low productivity of labor in Korean agriculture is not only the result of the scarcity of land—it is also the result of the social conditions in Korean villages, where landlords are all powerful.

## LANDLORDS, KOREAN AND JAPANESE

Who are the landlords? Many of them are Japanese. The Japanese tried hard to lay hands on Korean land, especially the irrigated land on which rice is chiefly grown. There are no statistics available, but some authorities estimate that at least one-quarter of the rice fields are in Japanese hands, while the total Japanese-owned area (including forests) must be considerably larger. Unfortunately, the situation is more complicated than that. If the Japanese were the only landlords in Korea, the defeat of Japan would bring an easy solution to many of Korea's agricultural problems. The Japanese landowners would leave Korea together



with the Japanese army, and the problem of tenancy would be solved for the time being. But among the landlords are a number of rich Koreans, many of whom are at the same time usurers; and usually it has been they upon whom the Japanese have relied, in addition to their own policemen, to control the Korean countryside. The number of landlords' families is about 100,000 and this group will present a grave problem in the future democratic Korea.

### THE FUTURE OF FARMING

The agricultural problem of Korea is fundamentally the same as that which plagues China and Japan, and there is no need to close one's eyes to its seriousness. The Japanese landlords—let us hope—will go, but the Korean landlords will remain, with their lands, their usury, their influence upon the local population, an influence which, as in Japan, tends to work in the direction of reaction, retarding the democratic development of the nation. The problem may be simplified to some extent by the fact that many of the landowners are now cooperating with the Japanese. They take part in the Japanese administration and receive certain privileges and rewards from the Japanese. If the new Korean government and the Allied forces of occupation should treat these people as Quislings, the agricultural problem of Korea would be several steps nearer solution.

This does not mean of course that overnight Korean farming will become prosperous and Korean farmers opulent. The figures quoted above show that this can hardly take place. Yet if the evils of the old landlordism could be eliminated, if farmers could unite into cooperatives and, wherever possible, use machinery for cultivation, they could save much time on the one hand and increase their yields on the other. Machinery itself does not bring increased yields, but it brings more time for other work on the farm, for education, for experimentation, for application of modern science. Crop yields in Korea can be greatly increased (yields in Japan are double Korea's); large areas can be irrigated; the



cultivated area can be increased by perhaps as much as 20 to 25 per cent; the remaining area may be used for handicraft work or other employment. The Korean farmer may never reach the level of American farmers, or acquire many of the conveniences for which the American farmer works; yet his enjoyment of life can be greatly increased.

It may be mentioned here that very few Japanese engage in actual farming in Korea. The Japanese government encouraged them to settle on the land and supplied them with all kinds of facilities, but the prospects and possibilities in other fields were more attractive.

## INDUSTRIAL STRUCTURE

Industry in Korea is largely in the hands of the Japanese. There are many small-scale industries owned and managed by Koreans and much simple manufacturing is still done by craftsmen in their homes, but all large industries are owned by Japanese, who employ Koreans as workers. In 1939 the capital investment in Korean-owned corporations was only 12 per cent of the total capital of industrial corporations in the country. Some of the Japanese industries in Korea are huge enterprises capitalized at many millions of yen. During the first quarter of the century the Japanese neglected the development of industry in Korea; but they changed their policy in 1930, when they started preparations for the present war, and in the last ten years the development of industry was rapid.

In general Korean mineral resources are not as good and probably more expensive to exploit than those available in other countries. But Japan, preparing for a war of aggression, wanted to be self-sufficient. For that purpose Korea had much to offer, for many metals and minerals are found there, some of them in fairly large quantities. Their development was probably retarded by the scarcity of coal. Recent dispatches from Japan indicate that important new reserves of coal have been discovered. Because cheap hydroelectric power was available the Japanese

built in Korea large chemical industries especially for the manufacture of sulphate of ammonia, which is used for fertilizer and also for munitions. Production of aluminum and magnesium, important for making airplanes, has also made great progress.

This industrial progress was helped by the existence of a large and cheap labor force. The Koreans driven from their villages by hunger (not unconnected with the economic and financial policy of the Japanese authorities) worked in the factories for wages which were only half the wages in Japan. There is no doubt that before 1930 only administrative measures kept Japanese industrialists out of Korea. At that time the government did not want Korean industries to compete with those of Japan. But preparations for war created an unlimited market in Japan and any addition to the production of Japan proper was welcome. Huge Japanese trusts and cartels moved into Korea, where they could make profits exceeding anything they could expect in Japan.

## CHIEF INDUSTRIES

What are Korea's main industries?

Production of coal reached 2.3 million tons in 1936 and is now (1944) probably twice as large. It is not much beside production in the United States, but compares favorably with the output of such countries as Mexico. Oil has not been found in Korea, though some synthetic oil is produced from brown coal. The output of electricity is substantial; the total capacity of Korean electric stations now probably exceeds 2,000,000 kilowatts.

Among manufacturing industries in 1938 the first place, in terms of gross value of production, was occupied by the chemical industry (31 per cent of the total); second place by the food industry (24 per cent); third by the textile industry (14 per cent); fourth by the metal industry (8 per cent). The chemical industry is represented by plants producing sulphate of ammonia (one of which has a capacity of 500,000 tons), using cheap electric energy. There is also production of coke, rubber goods, paper and other commodities.



Despite growth of Korea's manufacturing industries, much labor is still devoted to handicraft and to home industries producing such items as these sandals.

In the food industry (including beverages) should be mentioned the making of wines, sake and beer, production of soy, *miso* (bean paste), flour, candy, starch, and refining of sugar.

The textile industry includes the manufacture of cotton goods, silk reeling, and, recently, the manufacture of rayon and staple fiber.

The metal and machine building industries are the result of the war boom. No recent figures are available, but experts estimate that production of steel in Korea may now be as high as 2,000,000 tons, or as much as in India or Italy. To this should be added a substantial production of aluminum and magnesium. Machine-building production received a great impetus from the mining boom and shipbuilding. Drilling equipment, pneumatic

machinery, electric dynamos, forging equipment, boilers, and even airplanes are now manufactured in Korea.

This development is very encouraging for the future of Korea. Between 1929 and 1942 the value of output in the manufacturing industries increased eight times, from 327,000,000 to 2,700,000,000 yen. It is true that a substantial part of this increase is the result of inflation, yet the increase is beyond any doubt.

Despite the rapid development of Korean industry under the spur of war, we should not exaggerate its dimensions. The number of workers in manufacturing industry (home enterprises excluded) was 230,000 in 1938 and may be estimated as 300,000 to 400,000 in 1944 out of a total population of about 25,000,000, and the total value of output in 1938 was less than 6 per cent of that in Japan. As late as 1938, the household industry of Korea contributed one-quarter of the total value of manufactures—a certain sign of backwardness. It may be said that Korea has taken the first steps in the direction of industrialization, steps which will be very helpful for further progress. But her industry is now completely adjusted to the war needs of Japan and its conversion to peace-time production will not be easy.

## COMMUNICATIONS

The network of communications in Korea is relatively well developed. There are 3,500 miles of railway and 15,000 miles of roads, several air lines connecting Japan with the continent, 5,600 miles of telegraph lines, 7,100 miles of telephone lines, 1,031 post offices (all these data are of 1938). But the poverty of the population does not permit the Koreans to enjoy full use of these facilities. In Japan, for example, in 1937 for each thousand of population there were 25,100 railway passengers, while in Korea there were only 2,100. The roads also are little used by the Koreans themselves: official figures show only seven carts per thousand of population! Recently interurban buses have become numerous and carry as many passengers as the railways.

## JAPAN'S HEAVY HAND

Though forty years have passed since Japanese troops occupied Korea, the Japanese are still not liked. Japan, has, it is true, done a good deal in Korea, as her spokesmen have never been tired of pointing out. The Japanese have built excellent railways, over which Japanese administrators traveled with great comfort; they built new roads with the help of Korean forced labor; they constructed admirable ports in which big Japanese steamers can anchor; they started afforestation projects, and set up many irrigation dams; they opened many schools. Yet these things were done not to help the Koreans, but to make Korea more useful to Japan.

Of course, the Koreans were prejudiced against the Japanese from the start. They still remembered the stories of how some three hundred years ago the Japanese pillaged and ravaged their country. The Koreans, who had contributed much to the cultural development of Japan, considered this a very bad way of paying a debt. When after 1875 the Koreans again entered into closer contact with the Japanese, the latter's behavior did little to inspire confidence. The new intercourse started with Japanese gunboats firing on peaceful Koreans, and the Koreans thought this a peculiar way of making friends. Subsequent actions of the Japanese did not help to improve the Koreans' opinion of them. A Tokyo envoy took part in the murder of a much-loved Korean queen. After the Russo-Japanese War the Japanese in Korea behaved as conquerors, though Korea was supposed to be Japan's ally. And when the Japanese did not withdraw from Korea after the war, as they had promised, the Koreans began to worry. Later they even tried to rebel, but they were no match in warfare for the Japanese. The great powers acquiesced in the Japanese occupation and the outer world forgot about Korea. Japan's real motive in coming to Korea has always been quite clear to the





Japanese policeman in Seoul pauses to look at the papers of a Korean.

Koreans. Ask any unlettered Korean farmer and his reply will reveal his contempt for the Japanese. "Our country," he will tell you, "is fair and beautiful, and rich, and there are many good things to eat and enjoy in it, and the Japanese, who have nothing at home, came to get these things."

The first Japanese to come to Korea were of two types: they were either of the get-rich-quick type or military men. The duty of the military men was to keep in subjugation a country which had previously been very proud of its traditions. Korea had had very bad rulers and a bureaucracy which could hardly have been worse; but the Koreans felt that this was their own affair. They did not see how Japan or any other nation could claim a right to send soldiers into their country to improve its morals and administration.



The actual job of keeping in subjugation a civilized people is not difficult. But the Koreans' feeling of superiority, their contempt for their barbarian masters made these masters uneasy and nervous, and they made many mistakes. When the Japanese ordered that Japanese teachers should come to classes wearing a ceremonial sword, many Koreans chuckled. Even their babies, apparently, were a terror to the master race! When the Japanese confiscated all arms in Korea including medieval spears, or ordered that the only axe for a whole village should be chained near the village well, Koreans laughed at the fears of their rulers.

### JAPANESE CARPET-BAGGERS

As to the get-rich-quick type of Japanese immigrant, this type is more or less common throughout the world. They grabbed Korean lands, they cheated Koreans on every occasion, they used extortion, threats, law and lawlessness. They were noisy, insistent, demanding, so that finally even the Japanese administration was compelled to send some of them back to Japan. All this did not improve Korean opinion of the Japanese. When, in 1919, Wilsonian principles reached forgotten Korea, the Koreans started a peaceful rebellion, one of the few in world history. This rebellion was drowned in blood and even the Tokyo bureaucrats were shocked by the brutality of its suppression.

The Japanese then tried another way. They tried to win the sympathy of the rich Koreans, giving them certain rights and opportunities. To a certain degree the Japanese were successful in this policy, but on the whole it was a failure for a very simple reason: there are relatively few rich people in Korea, and even among these there were patriots who would not sell their country for material advantage. The great majority of the Koreans remained sullen and resigned. An active minority attempted to struggle against the Japanese under great odds. But in both groups there was no love for the conquerors.

Economic developments during the last ten years before the Pacific war did not contribute to reconciliation. In agriculture

more and more Koreans were driven from the land of their fathers and were compelled to seek employment either in Manchuria or in Japan. In industry came the triumphal march of big Japanese enterprises with Korean workers underpaid, overworked and unprotected by factory laws. In offices Koreans could not find any decent employment, even if they had graduated from Japanese universities and mastered the language of the conquerors. Is it then astonishing that the Japanese police every year arrested all the members of the secret parties (according to their own statement), only to be compelled to repeat the same performance over and over again?

### JAPANIZATION

There is, it is true, no racial barrier between Japanese and Koreans. A Japanese could marry a Korean and a good many such marriages have taken place. The Japanese included the Korean aristocracy in the ranks of the Japanese aristocracy. They were ready to present a Korean runner at the Berlin Olympiad as a Japanese. But what they refused to recognize was Korean nationality. They wanted to make the Koreans second-rate Japanese. But they did not take them into the army or give them any positions of importance in the government. After the annexation there were a few Korean governors left as puppets, but gradually their number was reduced to zero.

As a result of this the Japanese and Korean communities lived separate lives, with little contact with each other. They had separate schools, separate churches, separate social organizations and even separate newspapers, though the newspapers for Koreans were published by Japanese. (A few independent Korean publishers spent more time in prison than at their desks and finally Korean newspapers disappeared altogether.) For Japan Korea remained a colony, where a Japanese could attain more rapid advancement than at home, but the heart of the colonial administrator remained in Japan.

The war brought certain important changes in Korean life,

for reasons which are easy to understand. A great war demands great production and great expenditure of lives. Every possible means of production must be utilized and every person who can be used as cannon fodder must be mobilized.

Before the war it was hard for educated Koreans to find employment either in Korea or in Japan. But war brought a tremendous shortage of skilled labor, and the Japanese authorities rushed to open industrial training schools. They repented their neglect of education, which resulted in an illiterate population, and decided to introduce compulsory education in Korea in 1946. In various ways they sought to conciliate the Koreans and to persuade them to identify their interests with those of Japan, even to the point of forcing them to adopt Japanese names.

There was plenty of work in Korea, and if one did not want to work in Korea, there was a shortage of labor in Japan. Koreans were formed into special battalions and sent to Japan to till the fields of Japanese families who had members in the Imperial Army or Navy. Such battalions after their return from Japan were addressed in the warmest terms by the Governor-General, General Koiso, who later became Premier of Japan.

The Japanese government still hesitated to admit Koreans to service in the Imperial Navy, but since 1938 Koreans have been permitted to enlist as volunteers in the Imperial Army and given the honor of dying for the Japanese Emperor. When one such volunteer died, his ashes were brought to Korea and he was pictured as a hero whose example the Koreans were to follow. In 1942, according to Japanese reports, not less than 254,000 Koreans offered to enlist. For some reason, however, only 6,000 of these volunteers were accepted. The authorities thought that more time was needed to prepare Koreans for military service by further training of their bodies and especially their minds.

They decided to go slow in drafting Koreans and though conscription was planned to start as early as May 1942, yet action was postponed until March 1944. It was reported from China that when this law was applied in Korea there were many demon-



A group of Koreans who are being given pre-military training by the Japanese, in the hope that they will become "fit" for service with Japan's regular army.

strations of popular protest which had to be suppressed by the police and the army.

### MASS REGIMENTATION

At the same time several mass organizations of Koreans were formed, under Japanese supervision. Among these organizations the most important was the People's Mobilization League. After 1942 this League played a great role in (1) forming neighborhood organizations, which permit better supervision and control over the activities and thoughts of each Korean family; (2) in organization of the movement for "self-awakening to the fact that the Emperor is God;" (3) in the economic field; (4) in enlisting the support of the Koreans for the Imperial Army in

every way. The Japanese thought that neighborhood organizations would be excellent for these specific purposes, because under this system every member was responsible for the activities of his neighbor and, it was hoped, would turn into an unpaid spy on his neighbor and thus save money for the Imperial treasury.

In the economic field the duties of this organization were heavy because every Korean farmer was permitted to keep for himself only a limited amount of the grain and other agricultural products which he raised. Everything else he had to surrender to the authorities. Thus the organization had the unpleasant task of convincing the farmers that they must give up their grain at low prices, and of making sure that the farmers did not hide any produce from the Japanese authorities. Japanese official reports claim that the grateful Koreans had voluntarily donated to the Imperial Army 10,000,000 yen and 245 airplanes (up to March 1942).

#### MORE POWER TO TOKYO

In accordance with this war-time policy toward Korea the Japanese government decided to manage Korean affairs chiefly from Tokyo, reducing the duty of the Governor-General to that of general supervision. Thus, army conscription in Korea was to be managed by the Prime Minister in Tokyo; problems of taxation and currency by the Minister of Finance; education by the Minister of Education; agriculture by the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry; industry and trade by the Minister of Commerce and Industry; and similarly with communications, railways and foreign trade. Thus the unification of Korea with Japan became more complete, and Japanese officials now speak of "100,000,000 Japanese," counting Koreans as Japanese!

This policy of assimilation might have been partially successful had it been introduced before the start of the war in 1937. But economic and political conditions in Korea during the last seven years have been such that these measures could hardly have had the effect desired by the authors.



First let us look at the economic situation. Since Japan itself was on short rations after 1937, and particularly after 1941, we can assume that Korea has fared no better and probably worse. Production of civilian goods in both Japan and Korea has been greatly reduced or ceased entirely. Cotton goods, so important for the Korean farmer, have been hard to get; vegetable oils have been strictly rationed; the supply of fertilizers was cut and metal goods for the civilian population have practically disappeared from the market. To these factors have been added higher taxes, many compulsory services, pressure campaigns for gifts to the Japanese army, for planes and tanks, and campaigns for the collection of gold. (The Korean women, according to Japanese reports, out of loyalty to the Empire, presented all their gold and silver trinkets and ornaments to the Japanese government in Korea.)

All these exactions, regulations and ever stricter police control could not fail to increase the Koreans' resistance to identification with the Japanese. Moreover, between 1939 and 1944 Korea has



Part of government reforestation program to replenish Korea's depleted forests.



had three crop failures. But Koreans have read in Japanese newspapers and heard on the Japanese radio accounts of the war in the Pacific, which could not conceal the mounting tempo of American victories. Each Allied advance has brought new hope and energy to Korean patriots.

We know that many Koreans were arrested in the spring of 1942; we know also that, in September 1942, 72 leaders of a secret Korean Christian Society were arrested in Manchuria in an alleged attempt to "overthrow the Manchurian regime." But the Japanese have not revealed how many arrests were made in Korea of persons who actively struggled against the Japanese government. Such persons were numerous before the war, and there is no reason to think that their activity has decreased during the war. This may well account for the slowness of the Japanese government in introducing compulsory military service in Korea.

## "IN DUE COURSE"

The Cairo Declaration of the President of the United States, the Prime Minister of Great Britain and the President of the Chinese Republic has brought the problem of Korea to the international scene for the first time in forty years. In Korea, the fight for freedom has never ceased, but in the world of international diplomacy Korea was buried many years ago. Now that the question of Korea's independence has again become a living issue, it is important to examine the general conditions in which Korea will find herself after the war. There are several aspects to this problem.

Restored Korea will have as its neighbors China, Russia and Japan. Korea is separated from Japan by straits which even under modern conditions are an important strategic obstacle. From Russia Korea is separated by the Tumen River; the length of this frontier is only about twenty miles. On both sides the terrain is mountainous, and the Russian frontier is at the end of the long tip that starts from Voroshilov; this region has no railways and in general is inconvenient for offensive operations, unless the war should involve China as well as Korea. The frontier with China is clearly marked by the Yalu and Tumen Rivers, which run through mountainous country. On the Korean side there are no Chinese settlements; the frontier has existed in its present position for more than a thousand years, and unless China becomes an imperialistic nation there is no reason why she should advance claims to any part of Korean territory.

The geographic situation of Korea is such that every neighbor is interested in her independence. Korea in Japanese hands, as the history of the last twenty years clearly shows, is a threat to Russia and China. Korea in Russian hands would be a threat to Japan and to the whole strategic position of China and Manchuria. Korea in the hands of China would be a threat to Japan

and to the Russian position around Vladivostok. It is to the interest of all three countries that Korea should be independent. At the time when she lost her independence, China was too weak to do anything and the other powers wanted to help Japan against Russia in order to check Russian ambitions in the Far East. Korea was therefore sacrificed. With a strong Russia and a strong China, Korea has no need to fear that her independence will be lost.

### CHINESE AND RUSSIAN ATTITUDES

China's position in regard to Korea's independence is clear and definite. Chinese representatives at Cairo supported Korea's claim to independence, and a provisional Korean government exists on Chinese soil. There is no reason why friendly relations between China and Korea should not continue after the war. For many centuries China was a protector of Korea and during this long period she never acted high-handedly toward Korea and practically never interfered in Korean affairs.

The only serious problem which may arise between China and Korea is that of the Korean settlers in Manchuria. Their number is about one million and in one district—Chientao, just across the frontier—they form a majority of the population. The position of the Koreans in Manchuria prior to 1931 was not good and Korean tenants suffered at the hands of the Chinese landowners and local authorities. When Korea becomes independent these Koreans may not be able to return home at once, and for many of them Manchuria has been their home for many generations. It would be well if the Chinese would treat them as Chinese citizens, at the same time granting them cultural autonomy. If this is done, there should be no danger of bad feeling between these two countries.

Russia was not a party to the Cairo Declaration because she is neutral in the war between the Allied Powers and Japan. But in the past, whenever the Korean problem has been discussed in the pages of Soviet publications, her cause has always been treated

with sympathy. Panegyrics to Japanese rule in Korea have never appeared in Russian publications. There is no doubt that Russia after this war will welcome Korea's independence.

Russia also has a Korean minority of about 200,000 persons. These Koreans have schools in their own language and their villages have the same type of self-government as all other villages; Koreans have the same duties (including military service) and rights as other groups of the population, and there are no problems which might complicate the relations between these two countries.

### RELATIONS WITH DEFEATED JAPAN

It may be assumed that after the defeat of Japan all Japanese investments, rights and privileges will be taken over by the Korean government and the majority of the Japanese in Korea will return to Japan. If Japan will reconcile herself to this loss and renounce the idea of conquest, there is no reason why the relations between these two countries should be anything but good. In many respects they may help each other. Even defeated Japan will be ahead of Korea in many technical fields and the services of her specialists will be cheaper than the services of specialists from other countries. But it may be wise for the Koreans, at the time of peace, not to demand any further reparations although some Koreans now insist they should. Confiscation of Japanese investments in Korea is all that Korea can reasonably hope to recover. Defeated Japan, deprived of all her colonies and positions on the continent, with her merchant marine practically gone, her assets abroad gone and her reserves of everything near the end, will hardly be able to make reparations payments. She will be in need of help herself, and for such a small nation as Korea it is better not to create bitter memories in the minds of her neighbors. The task of Korean statesmen is to establish friendly relations with *all* neighbors, to prove to them that a free Korea is the best guarantee of peace in this part of the world.

If Korea can succeed in this, she will not need a large army and navy, and then she can turn appropriations for military purposes into investments in the fields of national economy, education and health. The needs will be many and every dollar may be spent to good advantage.

### MANDATE FOR KOREA?

The Cairo Declaration promised freedom and independence to Korea "in due course." Many commentators interpret this enigmatic statement as meaning that after the war Korea will not get independence at once, but will be placed temporarily under some form of international supervision on the ground that she is not yet able to assume the responsibilities of independence.

The experience with mandates after the first World War was not altogether fortunate. Moreover, if Korea is to be supervised, it is going to be difficult to decide who is to do the supervising. International administration has never worked very well in the few cases where it has been tried. Korea might be made a mandate, but what country will be the mandatory power? Neither China nor Russia would wish to see Korea in the other's hands. Some have suggested that Korea be made a ward of the United States, but it seems clear that American public opinion would be against taking on such a responsibility.

The Koreans themselves will not be satisfied with anything less than complete independence. Since the unsuccessful demonstration of 1919, when "national independence" was proclaimed, an active nationalist movement has worked through organization and propaganda for Korean freedom. It has had to operate largely in exile. In 1919 a Provisional Government, under Dr. Syngman Rhee, was organized in Shanghai and adopted a democratic constitution. A Korean People's Delegates Congress in Shanghai in 1924 was attended by 600 persons. The movement has received support from the Korean communities in Manchuria, Siberia and the United States.

Like most revolutionary movements it has been marked by

sharp differences of opinion on aims and tactics. The Koreans living in Manchuria and Siberia, some of whom have carried on guerrilla warfare against the Japanese, tended to look to Russia for outside aid, while those in America, and Christians in Korea, tended to look to the United States. Many shades of opinion from right to left are represented in the movement. Some Korean youths, impatient with the slow progress of events, have resorted to terrorist activities; it was a Korean who threw the bomb by which Admiral Nomura, Japan's last ambassador to the United States, lost an eye. And in 1932 a Korean threw a bomb at the Imperial cortege itself!

### UNITED FOR INDEPENDENCE

Whatever their differences, all Korean groups are passionately agreed on the necessity of independence. In 1935 representatives of conservative nationalist, Communist and other left-wing groups met in Shanghai and agreed on a program calling for a democratic republic, national ownership of monopoly enterprises, protection of private property, and various legal and social reforms.

The Provisional Government of Korea, now headed by Kim Koo, is at present functioning in Free China, and a small Korean army operates under the orders of Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek. The Provisional Government has sought, so far unsuccessfully, for recognition by the United Nations as the temporary custodian of Korea's interests, until Korea is freed and a permanent government can be organized—much as General de Gaulle's organization has claimed recognition as provisional representative of France. Such recognition has so far been denied to the Koreans, partly on the ground that the exiled government does not necessarily represent the people of Korea, partly because the United Nations have not been ready to commit themselves to full and immediate recognition of Korea's independence.

On the twenty-fifth anniversary of the March 1, 1919, rebellion in Korea, observed at Chungking in 1944, Kim Koo, President



of the Provisional Government, declared that "nothing short of full and immediate independence" would satisfy Koreans after the war. He assailed opinions that favored placing Korea under a form of international control. "Such opinions," he said, "are insulting to the Koreans. They mark a disgrace for the holy fight against aggression, imperialism and injustice. We insist that all peoples must be free and equal. They all must have a right to govern themselves."

Many Koreans have died for their country's freedom, and their successors will not be satisfied with less than independence. In view of their determination and the necessity of dealing with some Korean representatives after Japan is driven out of the country, to deny them the full and immediate independence which they seek might create problems which would make difficult if not impossible the work of any form of international "trusteeship."

### NEEDS OF FREE KOREA

Americans should recognize, however, that merely giving independence to Korea will not dispose of the question. Korea is not strong enough to defend herself against attack, and unless a general security system is organized she will be forced to turn to some more powerful neighbor for protection. Nor can she achieve national prosperity by her own unaided efforts. Like all small countries, Korea has a vital interest in international organization to safeguard her peace and prosperity.

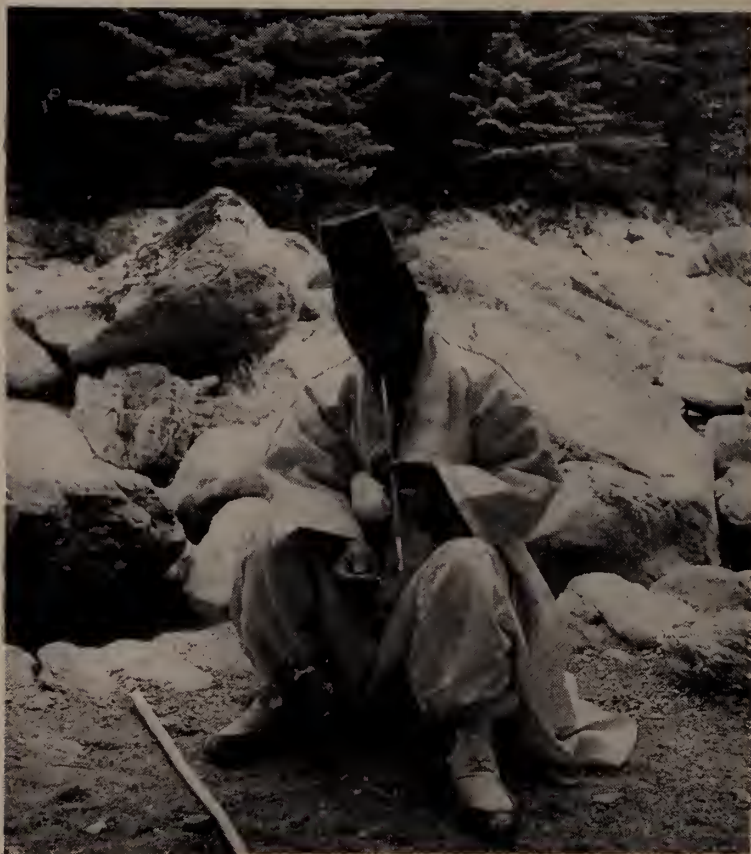
It is true that the Koreans have not enjoyed self-government for the last forty years. Koreans point out, however, that Poland was under foreign rule for 125 years, and yet in 1919 her right to govern herself at once was never doubted. Korea has, they say, many revolutionary leaders steeled in the long and unequal struggle with the Japanese; she has a tradition of village self-government which even the Japanese were not able to destroy in the small villages, simply because there were not enough Japanese administrators and policemen to watch over them; the Koreans

have a well-developed net of cooperatives, whose members now number more than two million; Korea has thousands of university graduates and Korean emigrés in the United States and in Russia have rich experience in many fields. Koreans argue, therefore, that Korea does not lack the ability or the means of self-government.

Koreans have had, however, no experience in democratic government and their first steps are bound to be characterized by trial and error. The country does not have as many trained administrators, technicians and skilled workers as she will need to develop her resources, both social and economic. This is also true of China and of other countries which are now independent. Korea, like China, will need and welcome outside aid in national reconstruction, provided it does not take the form of foreign control. She will need a sympathetic and forbearing attitude on the part of her neighbors. She may want to employ foreign advisers, selected from different countries, and foreign teachers. She may ask and receive aid from international agencies, as China received aid from the League of Nations in combating famine. She will doubtless require foreign loans, which she will be prepared to repay. We may find it easier to give Korea the help she needs by dealing with her as an independent country than by trying to devise some kind of transitional semi-colonial status for her. But it must be emphasized that Korea will need a sympathetic attitude on the part of her neighbors if she is to become a strong and prosperous member of international society rather than a continued sore spot in the Far East.

#### WAR-TIME DEVELOPMENTS

The tasks which the new government of free Korea will face will not be easy ones. Much depends upon how the war ends and on the nature of the post-war settlement. It may happen for example that Japan will surrender before the war reaches the border of Korea, and in that case Korea's economy will suffer little damage from war action. But it may be that Korea will



Well-to-do Korean farmer, shown resting near a resort in Diamond Mountains.

become a theater of war, and much of her industry and transportation equipment will be destroyed. In that case Korea's post-war difficulties will greatly increase.

Even if Korea does not suffer from the war, she will face urgent and serious problems at its close. Her whole economy is now adjusted for war needs and a radical reorganization will be needed. Probably reserves of raw materials will have run very

low. Many services will need to be organized from the ground up. Foreign trade has been conducted almost exclusively with Japan and her possessions, and this dependence should be lessened.

Yet one should not exaggerate these difficulties. The country is still predominantly agricultural, and should easily be able to feed herself. Korea's territory contains many of the raw materials needed for industry. Her fishing resources are considerable. Thus restoration will not be as difficult as it will be in the case of countries with a too heavy dependence upon foreign imports of food-stuffs and raw materials. Her population is hard-working and is accustomed to privations.

One should remember also that Korea will be passing through a period of cultural renaissance. The restoration of her political independence will undoubtedly bring forth talents and abilities which could not find expression under the Japanese regime. There will be a new enthusiasm, a will to surmount all difficulties. But naturally this enthusiasm will be dampened if full independence is not achieved.

Under conditions of freedom many social forces, which were suppressed or dormant under Japanese rule, will emerge and find expression. Undoubtedly there will be a struggle for economic and political power, for the direction of economic and cultural policy. For those outside of Korea it may at times appear that Korea's independence has brought to the fore passions and partisanships which threaten the stability of the new state. But such difficulties are inevitable in a reconstruction period—witness China—and usually accompany the growth of democratic government. Wise statesmanship will be needed in Korea and in neighboring countries if Korea is to occupy the place among the nations to which her history, her numbers and the talents of her people entitle her.

## KOREAN ORGANIZATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES

- Korea Economic Society, 1775 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y.  
President: Ilhan New; Secretary: Jacob S. Kim  
Publication: *Korea Economic Digest* (monthly)
- Korean Affairs Institute, 1029 Vermont Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C.  
President: Yongjeung Kim  
Publication: *Voice of Korea* (bi-weekly)
- Korean Commission, 416 5th St., N.W., Washington, D.C.  
Agency of the Korean Provisional Government located in Chungking, China.  
Chairman: Dr. Syngman Rhee  
Publication: *Commission Correspondence* (weekly, in Korean)
- Korean National Association, 1368 W. Jefferson Blvd., Los Angeles 7, Calif.  
President: W. K. Park  
Publication: *The New Korea* (weekly, in English and Korean)
- Korean National Revolutionary Party, 1350 W. Jefferson Blvd., Los Angeles 7, Calif.  
Chairman: Choon Ho Penn  
Publication: *Korean Independence* (weekly, in English and Korean)
- Korean Research Council, 1287 W. 36th St., Los Angeles 7, Calif.  
Executive Director: Dr. Sae Won Chang  
Publication: *Korean Research Bulletin* (quarterly)
- Korean Student Federation, 1923 H St., N.W., Washington, D.C.  
President: Dr. Kei Won Chung  
Publication: *Free Korea* (irregular)
- Korean Students' Christian Association, 633 W. 115th St., New York 25, N. Y.  
Chairman: Rev. Paul S. Myung
- Sino-Korean Peoples' League, 101 D St., N.W., Washington 2, D.C.  
Washington Representative: Kilsoo Haan
- Tong Ji Hoi, 1142 West 36th St.; Los Angeles 7, Calif.  
President: Sarum Lee  
Publication: *The Korean American Times* (bi-weekly, in English and Korean)
- United Korean Committee in America, 1368 W. Jefferson Blvd., Los Angeles 7, Calif.; 1719 K St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.; 1603 Miller St., Honolulu, T.H.  
President: W. K. Park  
Publication: *The New Korea* (weekly, in English and Korean)

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# **K O R E A**

## **TEST and SYMBOL**



*By* **BEN C. LIMB**



**REPUBLIC OF KOREA**  
**Mission to the United Nations**



# Korea—Test and Symbol

By BEN C. LIMB

The re-establishment of Korea's unity under a government freely chosen by the Korean people is an indispensable step toward world peace and international security. Korea divided is a symbol of the divided world. Whether Korea is promptly re-united under its own democratic government is the inescapable test of the abilities of the Great Powers to solve their difficulties without recourse to global atomic war.

There are many who will want to brush aside the Korean question as though it were only of secondary importance. But the 38th parallel, blood-stained and dangerous—dank with black memories and bristling with antagonistic armaments—cannot be filed away for future reference.

The nations of the world have already taken sides. The issue has been defined in words, in official resolutions, in warfare, and in the terms of the Panmunjom temporary truce. The guns in Korea have for the moment been stilled, but the triggers are still cocked. Until the issue is settled, those guns will not be put away. Wishing that the problem did not exist, or pretending that it does not exist, will not suffice.

The problem of divided Korea must be solved.

## *THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM*

The overwhelming fact is that the Korean people belong together. Nature itself designed the Korean peninsula as a unity, surrounded on three sides by the

ocean and topped by the Everwhite Mountains. For more than 4,000 years this intrinsic unity of Korea has been observed and respected.

The great, free Chinese nation never sought to undermine Korea's freedom while the Chinese people were their own rulers. Korea and free China were brothers in a friendly family of nations. The old rulers of China maintained a neutralized strip along the northern banks of the Yalu and Tuman Rivers to keep their people from transgressing or even approaching the Korean border. They did this because they respected Korea's right to be free and because they valued Korean independence as an essential bastion against aggression on the mainland by Japan.

When the Chiefs of State of the United States, Great Britain and China met in Cairo, in November, 1943, they resolved that, "The aforesaid three great powers, mindful of the enslavement of the Korean people during thirty-five years of unjust occupation by Japan, are determined that, in due course, Korea shall be free and independent."

At Potsdam, in July, 1945, the Soviet Union associated itself with that Cairo pledge. This affirmation of Korea's right to full independence and self-government was repeated by the U.S.S.R. in its subsequent declaration of war against Japan.

The unwise division of Korea along the 38th parallel was asserted by the United States and the Soviet Union to be merely a temporary expedient to assist them in receiving the surrender and in disarming the Japanese troops in Korea. As soon as this was accomplished, both nations were avowedly to re-unite Korea and to hasten the establishment of a free, democratic Korean Government.

When it became apparent, after over two years of fruitless palaver between the two occupation commands, that the 38th parallel had been unjustly converted into a hardening frontier across the middle of the Korean nation, strangling it economically as well as politically, the United Nations, in November, 1947, voted that Korea should be re-united under a Government freely elected by the people under U. N. observation. The Commission sent to Korea by the United Nations to sponsor such an election was denied access to northern Korea by the Soviet Union. Accordingly, the United Nations voted that an election should be held "in all parts of Korea accessible to" the U. N. Commission.

On May 10, 1948, that election was held in all the districts of Korea south of the 38th parallel. The election was certified by U. N. official observers as being a "fair and free" expression of the will of all those Koreans who were enabled to participate. On December 12, 1948, the Republic of Korea was designated by the United Nations as being "the only legal government" in Korea. The Constitution of the Republic of Korea proclaims its jurisdiction over the entire historic area of the Korean peninsula, from the Straits of Korea in the south to the Yalu and Tumen Rivers in the north. One-third of the seats in the National Assembly have been reserved, on the principle of proportionate representation, to be filled by elections in northern Korea, whenever it is made accessible. On this basis, the Government of the Republic of Korea has been approved by the United Nations and recognized by thirty-three sovereign nations of the world as the only legal government of Korea.

On June 27, 1950, the Security Council of the



United Nations voted military support to “restore international peace and security in the area” of Korea. On October 7, 1950, the General Assembly of the United Nations, noting that “the unification of Korea has not yet been achieved,” and “Recalling that the essential objective of the resolutions of the General Assembly . . . was the establishment of a unified, independent and democratic Government of Korea,” resolved that “all appropriate steps be taken to ensure conditions of stability throughout Korea,” and added that “all constituent acts should be taken, including the holding of elections, under the auspices of the United Nations, for the establishment of a unified, independent and democratic government in the sovereign State of Korea.” Under this United Nations authorization, the armies of the United Nations and the Republic of Korea proceeded northward across the 38th parallel line to restore by force of arms the pledged re-unification of the Korean nation.

When this purpose of the United Nations and of the Korean people was opposed by the entry into Korea of aggressive forces from Red China, the General Assembly of the United Nations, on February 1, 1951, voted that Communist China was guilty of aggression because of the presence of Red Chinese forces on Korean soil.

The signing of a truce in Korea, after two full years of negotiation, clearly and emphatically was contingent upon the prompt convening of a political conference which should have as its essential aim the achievement of the re-unification of Korea, under a free and democratic Government elected by the Korean people.

*At no time has any nation ever disavowed the*

*right of the Korean people to a free government of their own choice over the whole area of the nation. This is the only solution which has ever been proposed for Korea. There is no other solution to the Korean problem.*

## INTERNATIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

*From the point of view of world peace and security, the re-unification and independence of Korea under its own democratic government is indispensable.*

This is true in part because of the strategic location of Korea in the heart of north-eastern Asia. History has demonstrated that an outside power unjustly entrenched through military force in Korea is a threat to the neighboring nations. Experience proves that a free Korea is a bastion of peace in this part of the world.

An independent Korea not only blocks the aggressive designs of neighboring powers but also ensures the security of areas bordering Korea. In more than 4,000 years of history, Korea has never attacked any nation beyond Korea's own borders. No nation need fear any aggressive attacks from an independent Korea.

A Korea left divided would, however, be an imminent and explosive threat to world peace. This is true in part because the Korean people will never consent to remain divided. Even when completely occupied, oppressed and disarmed by Japan, the people of Korea never surrendered. From complete bondage the Korean patriots found the means to rebel and re-assert their inherent right of self-rule. This spirit of the Korean people is not lessened now that they have a Government and an army of their own. To patriotic Koreans the re-

unification of their nation is of far greater importance than their own safety. They will sacrifice life itself rather than permit the continuance of this cruel injustice.

The United Nations is deeply and inescapably committed to the re-unification of Korea as a free and democratic nation. This is true not only because of the sanctity of the pledges that have been made through successive United Nations resolutions, but also very largely because experience proves that an international body which fails to fulfill its functions must wither and die. The United Nations took instant and effective action to deal with the initial aggression in Korea. It has not thus far taken similarly effective action to expel the major aggressor who came in to re-inforce the first. The simple fact is that this failure by the United Nations cannot be concealed and it cannot safely be ignored. It lies like a cancerous infection in the heart of that great peace-enforcement agency and will destroy it unless the infection is removed. The resolutions of October 7, 1950 and February 1, 1951 remain to be enforced. The re-unification of Korea remains as an inescapable responsibility. Avoidance of world conflict by establishment of the supremacy of law cannot be achieved unless the law is enforced.

*Divided Korea is a sorrowful symbol of the failure thus far of the United Nations to fulfill the requirements of its Charter and the hopes of mankind. Korea is a test of the ability of nations to solve their problems without committing mass suicide.*

## THE WILL OF THE KOREAN PEOPLE

No one can possibly doubt the will of the Korean people to have their nation re-united under their own

free and democratic government.

The people of northern Korea, although oppressed and gagged under a brutal totalitarian police puppet regime, have shown their own will to take their proper place within the Government of the Republic of Korea. Some four million of them have escaped from the north to find refuge south of the 38th parallel line. When the armies of the United Nations and the Republic of Korea moved through northern Korea, the entire populace greeted them as liberators and wildly demonstrated their joy at being relieved from the hideous rule of their foreign masters.

Racially, linguistically, historically, culturally, socially and economically the Korean people have merged into one closely-knit homogeneous unity. Nothing holds us apart except the power of foreign imperialism.

This fundamental truth brooks no doubt, however slight. We Korean people, north and south, confidently and impatiently demand that it be put to the test. We ask for nothing more than that the free will of the Korean people be allowed expression under elections closely observed by the United Nations. Without question, the entire Korean people will gladly abide by the result. No amount of sophistry can distort or conceal this great over-riding fact. Let the Korean people decide—and re-unification is an accomplished fact. If any there be who question this fact, the answer is simple indeed: let it be tested.

*Without unification Korea cannot live. Economic self-sufficiency demands it. Military security demands it. The freedom of re-united Korea is an inherent right sanctified by more than 4,000 years of history. The unquenchable spirit of Korean nationalism was demonstrated through three years of terribly destructive war. It will never die.*

## COMMUNIST AGGRESSION

The Soviet Union pledged Korean independence at Potsdam and in its declaration of war against Japan. It pledged that the 38th parallel division was a mere temporary military expedient, quickly to be abolished. These pledges remain to be fulfilled.

The Communist regime in northern Korea is not, and never has been, a Korean government. It was established through military power, under the cloak of an enforced, single-ballot farcical election. It has been headed from its inception by citizens of the Soviet Union. It has been upheld from the beginning by foreign armaments and directed by foreign masters. It has never sought to serve the interests of Korea but only the interests of international Communist aggression.

On June 25, 1950, the Communist imperialists launched what they believed to be an irresistible attack across the 38th parallel, fortified by what they believed to be assurances that the democratic nations would not intervene and conscious of the fact that the Republic of Korea had been precluded from building a defensive armed force.

When this attempted conquest failed, the Communists sent into Korea another much larger army, in the form of so-called "Communist volunteers," to achieve their goal of total conquest. After this effort, too, proved ineffective, they undertook their standard method of trying to win their objective through negotiation and cold war. But their military occupation of northern Korea still continues. The Communists are consolidating their fruits of aggression in Korea, while attempting to take over the rest through manipulations called peaceful negotiation.



The record of negotiation with the Communists concerning the Korean question is long and illuminating. The Joint U. S.-U. S. S. R. Commission conducted successive conferences in Korea for many months in 1946-1947. These conferences achieved nothing except to demonstrate the absolute refusal of the Soviet Union to abide by its pledges or to settle the question peacefully. When the United Nations undertook to solve the Korean problem through agreement in the Security Council and the General Assembly, the Soviet Union refused to abide by the decisions that were reached.

After the defeat of the Communist armies of aggression in Korea in 1950 and again in 1951, the Soviet Union took the lead in initiating truce talks. Its insincerity was shown in the fact that the talks lasted for two full years and even then did not result in an agreement, but only in a postponement of the issue.

Following the signing of the truce, the Communists instantly commenced to violate it. In direct violation of their solemn promises, they established military airfields in northern Korea and brought military aircraft onto them. Again violating their pledges, they have increased the size of their armies in Korea and have brought in great stocks of ammunition, supplies, tanks and guns. Despite the hopefulness of some who favored the truce, the Communists have not shown good will by relaxing their armed aggression in Indo-China, but have profited by the suspension of hostilities in Korea to increase their direct aid to the forces of international imperialism in that area.

The Conference of the Big Four Foreign Ministers in Berlin accomplished nothing except the singular agreement to hold another Conference. In this Conference in Geneva, we must not let the familiar pattern



be repeated. We must not surrender to threats and intimidation. We must not contribute at the conference table to continued losses in the cold war.

*Negotiation is justifiable only in terms of its results. Any and every constructive agreement will be welcomed as a step toward world peace. The Korean people want nothing which is not their own. They can accept nothing less. If the Communists will exercise this same spirit, the re-unification of Korea will be promptly achieved.*

### BASIS FOR A KOREAN SETTLEMENT

The solution of the Korean problem should not be difficult. The Communist spokesmen continually insist that they have no aggressive designs, but are trying to maintain world peace. They insist that their political philosophy is the right of peoples to rule themselves.

The United Nations and the United States have insisted without qualification that their aims are irrevocably the re-unification of Korea under its own free and democratic Government.

The Korean people and the Republic of Korea never have asked for anything more than the right of self-determination.

The asserted aims of all three parties to the problem are the same. Nothing remains but to put them jointly into effect.

Accordingly, our request to the Geneva Conference is that the United Nations-observed and approved elections which have provided representation for the vast majority of the Korean people be extended also through our northern provinces; that the duly elected representatives of the people remaining in northern Korea as Korean citizens be chosen through these elections and

take their due and proper places in the National Assembly of the Republic of Korea; and that henceforth the Republic of Korea, with this enlarged National Assembly representing the length and breadth of the entire peninsula, exercise complete and sovereign jurisdiction over all of its historic territory without let or hindrance from foreign powers.

*This is the only way to solve the Korean problem. It is the only way acceptable to the Korean people. It is the only way that the Korean situation can be converted from being a threat to world peace. Any lesser measures would be a violation of the truce, a violation of justice, and a denial of the just aspirations of humanity.*



(Not printed at Government expense)

# Congressional Record

PROCEEDINGS AND DEBATES OF THE 84<sup>th</sup> CONGRESS, SECOND SESSION

## Communist Doublecross in Korea

SPEECH

OF

**HON. DEWEY SHORT**

OF MISSOURI

IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

*Thursday, January 5, 1956*

Mr. SHORT. Mr. Speaker, one of my constituents, Mr. O. K. Armstrong, a former Member of this body, recently made a firsthand study of how the Communists are doublecrossing us and our allies in Korea. He has set forth his findings in an article of outstanding and lasting interest in this current issue of the Reader's Digest, entitled "The Communist Doublecross in Korea."

This article gives specific examples of how the Red Chinese and North Koreans, under their Soviet masters, and with the assistance of their stooges—the Poles and Czechs on the so-called Neutral Nations Supervisory Commission, have persistently violated the terms of the Korean armistice.

I wish to commend Maj. Gen. Harlan C. Parks, who was our chief of the U. N. Military Armistice Commission at the time of Mr. Armstrong's visit to Panmunjom, and other United States and allied officers, for their startling revelations of the danger we face in Korea. I include this article—with certain revisions requested by our military personnel—in the CONGRESSIONAL RECORD.

THE COMMUNIST DOUBLECROSS IN KOREA

(By O. K. Armstrong)

On the night of July 27, 1953, the day the Korean armistice was signed, United States military forces detected by radar the track

of planes entering North Korea from Manchuria and landing on the two airfields still usable.

"Enemy aircraft—jet propelled—numbers undetermined," the radar operators reported.

The Communist forces had no MIG planes in Korea when the fighting stopped. Under the armistice terms both the United Nations and the Communist commands agreed not to build up military strength.

U. N. officials were alarmed. If the Reds were breaking their word on the very day they gave it, what would they do in the future?

Two and a half years have given the answer: The leaders of Communist China and North Korea, backed by their Soviet masters, have proved that they never had any intention of observing the solemn agreement that brought an end to the fighting. While the U. N. forces in South Korea have strictly observed every item of the truce, the Red aggressors have constantly violated it.

"We face danger here," said Maj. Gen. Harlan C. Parks, senior U. N. representative on the Military Armistice Commission, as we sat in his headquarters near Panmunjom recently. "The Reds have persistently broken the truce in order to build up their combat forces, particularly their air force, whereas the military strength of the U. N. command, by virtue of scrupulous compliance with the armistice terms, has steadily declined in combat capability."

Spokesmen for the free world contemplating some agreement with Communist leaders for mutual inspection of military strength with a view to control of armaments should study what has happened in Korea. In the language of the Reds, inspection means a chance to observe unhindered everything in enemy territory while preventing any effective observation in their own.

Stripped to its fundamentals, the truce provided that neither side would increase its military strength. Military personnel could be rotated, man for man, and weapons could be replaced, item for item; but no additional strength could be brought in. Ten ports of entry, five for each area, were designated, through which all rotation and replacement would have to pass.

To enforce the truce, inspections were to be made by a Neutral Nations Supervisory Commission, made up of representatives of 2 countries named by the United Nations and 2 by the Communist side. The U. N. side named Sweden and Switzerland, both genuine neutrals. The Reds nominated Poland and Czechoslovakia, both as Red as Soviet control can make them and about as neutral as Premier Bulganin.

American military men in Korea put up a howl. They predicted that the inspection teams would not be allowed to see anything in the Communist area; even if they did, the two Red stooge members could veto any move toward corrective measures. But the armistice was a political decision; the warnings of the military men were ignored.

The U. N. side immediately set up a system of reporting and control, to insure that all incoming and outgoing personnel and materiel were shipped only through the designated ports. Complete, accurate, daily reports have been issued ever since.

Not one item of military equipment has come into South Korea that has not been duly entered upon the daily reports prepared for the inspection teams and given into the eager hands of the Reds. Every military person leaving or entering is carefully cataloged. At first all reports were made in triplicate. Soon the Reds demanded that they be made in quadruplicate. "One copy for Moscow," our military clerks say.

Meanwhile, the Communists have never set up a regular reporting system. They turned in no reports whatever until September 12, 1953, and then listed only 964 departures and zero arrivals for the one day preceding. Their first combat-materiel report was submitted October 6, listing an outgoing shipment of four antitank guns with 20 rounds of ammunition. It was not until February 9, 1954, that the Red joint command made another materiel report, showing an incoming shipment: one anti-

aircraft gun. All this time, of course, masses of Red Chinese troops were being rotated, and huge quantities of weapons and equipment were being brought into North Korea.

By every conceivable device, the Communists nullify the provisions for inspection of armaments. On last April 26, mobile team No. 6 attempted to inspect Uji and Namsi airfields. The Swedish and Swiss members reported: "The team was not permitted to see the cockpits of any MIG aircraft; neither was the team permitted to note the serial numbers of the inspected aircraft. We were not in a position to ascertain whether any aircraft had been shown us more than once; it was impossible to see all the aircraft on the same day because the Polish and Czech members started long discussions, saying that they did not wish to check all the aircraft."

The Reds never permit the inspection teams to interrogate a person unless he has been coached on what to say. At Taechon on last March 10, the Swiss and Swedish members of team No. 7 picked a guard at random and asked that he be sent in for questioning. The North Korean liaison officer violently objected.

"But surely he could tell us from his own observation what he had seen here," persisted the neutral spokesman.

"Oh, no," was the reply. "He is a sick man. In fact, he is insane. He could tell you nothing." The Polish and Czech team members declared the soldier was indeed insane and must not be talked to.

One of the Neutral Nations Supervisory Commission members, an outstanding authority on international law who told me he was serving at the request of his government, gave me other examples of Red doubledealing.

"My team was given information that a large consignment of MIG's had reached a certain airfield in North Korea—entirely in violation of the truce, of course," he related. "We insisted that this field must be inspected. As usual, the Poles and Czechs declared there was nothing at the airfield. Our information, they said—they always say—was a rumor started by the warmongering Americans.

"We persisted, and finally got agreement to inspect the field—after a week for prep-



aration. The team took off in a North Korean plane, which landed at the wrong airfield. 'Engine trouble,' said the Reds. So we lingered there for 2 days, while they tinkered with the engine. Next day we came out to leave; no pilot. He had been taken suddenly ill, they said. Another day's delay. When we got to the airfield, there was nothing there. 'Just as we told you,' said the Czechs and the Poles."

A Swiss inspection team member detailed how the Reds got around—literally—the use of prescribed ports of entry. He told how an associate stood with an inspection team in North Korea on a bridge across the Yalu. Beyond the bend in the river, less than 2 miles away, the Reds had constructed another bridge. Members of the inspection team could hear the rumble of a train crossing over it. But when the Swedish and Swiss inspectors insisted upon going to have a look, the Czech member consulted his papers and solemnly announced: "It says in my book there is no bridge there." And that ended the matter.

On February 23, 1954, Gen. Paul Wacker, then the senior Swiss member, declared in a report to the Commission: "In the South the teams control all materiel being brought into Korea, a control which is being carried out, thanks to the documents submitted by the local authorities, load manifests, ship manifests, as well as by inspections on the spot. In contrast, we find that in the North not more than 2 to 4 inspections of spare parts of war materiel have been carried out each month, and these only in 2 ports of entry."

On February 27, 1954, Capt. Lee Wan Bong, of the Chinese People's Volunteer Army, an interpreter for the North Korean delegates to the Military Armistice Commission, walked over to the U. N. side and stayed there. He confirmed what our intelligence already knew, that the activities of the Polish and Czech members of the inspection teams are directed by Soviet Russian officers. Lee gave the names of the Russian major general and other high-ranking officers in charge. He also brought proof that Russians frequently dress in Polish and Czech uniforms and take their places on the inspection teams for first-hand observation of United States military installations in South Korea, getting information down to our last jeep.

On last February 5, a United States four-engine craft, flying over the open sea west of North Korea, was attacked by eight MIGs. United States Sabre jets moved in and gave battle. Two of the Red planes went down in flames and the others streaked back to their bases. The North Korean general on the Military Armistice Commission made a great show of protest at the next conference.

"Where were those planes based?" he was asked by the U. N. chief.

"They were planes from our side, peacefully based in the Korean People's Republic," said the general.

"Have you ever reported the importation of these MIGs?" demanded the U. N. spokesman. For once the Red leader was nonplussed. He realized the admission was on record. But after a pause he shouted: "Your side tries to confuse the matter."

Every day brings to the desk of the Military Armistice Commission fresh evidence of Communist double-crossing. One day a detail of Republic of Korea soldiers was dispatched to salvage a plane that had fallen in the demilitarized zone, an operation permitted under the armistice rules. Each was armed with a United States 45-caliber pistol and a carbine—weapons authorized for personnel performing such duties. Chinese Communist soldiers suddenly opened fire. Two of the ROK Army sergeants were shot in the back and instantly killed.

"I immediately sent an officer to make an on-the-spot investigation," related Parks. "Based upon the preliminary report, he called for a joint investigation with Communist representatives at the scene of the incident. When the joint team met the following morning, the bodies of the sergeants had been dragged across the military demarcation line into Communist territory. Rocks had been piled around the bodies. In the hand of each was his pistol—with empty chamber.

"In fabricating their evidence the Communists made one glaring mistake. They put the slides in the empty pistols in the forward position with the hammer cocked. Anyone familiar with the operation of that United States pistol knows that when the last round is fired the slide is automatically locked in a rearward position."

When Parks faced his Communist counterpart at the conference table at Panmunjom



the Red general claimed that his soldiers had fired in self-defense. Parks retorted that it was a case of plain cold-blooded murder, and proved his point with indisputable evidence.

From Neutral Nations Supervisory Commission sources, and from United States and ROK officers, I heard ample evidence that the Communists could now move against the United Nations with overwhelming force. One of the best sources of information was Maj. Gen. Kim Chang-Yong, chief of ROK military counterintelligence.

General Kim dresses his agents as coolies or businessmen as occasion requires, and they form a tight network of observation all over North Korea. Accurate information also comes from Korean and Chinese defectors and from Communist spies arrested in South Korea.

Evidence from such sources establishes the following facts. At the time of the armistice, the Reds had 12 airfields. All had been pounded by U. N. bombers, and only two were usable. Today, they have 39 airfields, most of them capable of handling jets, all built under Soviet supervision.

At the signing of the armistice only a handful of Red planes and their mechanics—but no MIG's—were based in North Korea. Today there are 20,650 men in the combined air forces of North Korea and the Chinese "volunteers." According to General Kim's figures, they have 630 planes, of which 350 are MIG jets.

As for ground forces, there were approximately 1,200,000 troops in North Korea when the truce began. Many of the Chinese were

"volunteered" down to Indochina to fight the French, but these were replaced to maintain about a constant strength. General Kim's figures show the Reds have reorganized into 17 corps of 46 divisions, with 596,756 North Koreans and 545,368 Chinese. In addition, three divisions of Russian troops are stationed at Pyongan, a division of Soviet Mongol troops is based at Jangjon, a battalion of Russian Air Force is based at Sinihju and a company of Russian engineers has headquarters at Musan.

More significant than manpower is the heavy increase in firepower. "All equipment, except for certain light parts assembled in Manchuria, is made in Russia," declares General Kim.

In contrast to this, the U. N. ground-force strength has deteriorated since the armistice. Its firepower remains about the same, which means it is not now nearly equal to that of the Reds. Its weapons cannot be replaced by improved equipment, as has been the case in the north. The ROK Air Force has the exact number of planes it had on July 27, 1953: 140, of which 5 are F-86 jet fighters.

There is no doubt that we face danger in Korea. The Red military power now holds a double threat. They can start shooting. Or they can negotiate from superior strength in some future conference, demanding that we sign on the dotted line—or else.

As one high-ranking United States commander of troops on the bleak armistice line expressed it: "From where I sit, one thing is certain: the enemy is still the enemy."

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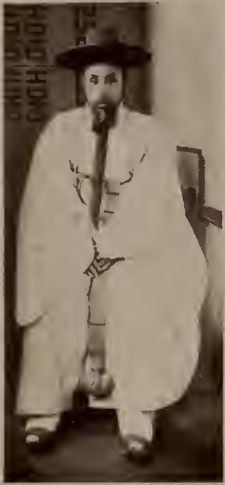


# KOREA

CHINA  
SIBERIA  
MONGOLIA  
MANCHURIA  
KAMCHATKA  
ALEUTIAN ISLANDS  
SAGHALIEN  
APOLAN  
KOREA  
SEOUL  
PEKING  
Tientsin  
Mukden  
Changchun  
Vladivostok  
Fusan  
Shimonoseki  
Kobe  
Takyo  
Yokohama  
Shanghai  
Canton  
Hong Kong  
FORMOSA  
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS  
Manila



WHO?



The Koreans

WHAT?



Chosen Christian College

WHERE?



Korea

WHEN? Now, from 1924 to 1930

WHY? To save a people for the world





*Charles M. Stimson Building, Administration*



*Underwood Hall,  
Recitation Building*



*Appenteller Hall, Science*



*Campus of Chosen Christian College after a snow storm*



*In the College Woods*



*A vista of the Athletic Field through the trees*

**THIS  
PAMPHLET**

is primarily intended to draw your attention

to the

**CHOSEN CHRISTIAN COLLEGE**

and

to stimulate your  
interest  
in it

**but first**



glance at the Orient and at Korea



*Note Korea's geographical relationship to Japan, China, Siberia. It separates them and connects them. Before studying the Chosen Christian College study the Orient and Korea.*

The R. R. running through Korea connects with the Trans-Siberian R. R., bringing Seoul to within 12 days of London.

Also Seoul is distant from Vancouver or Seattle 12 days by boat.

Korea was the roadway from Japan to China, Manchuria and Siberia and vice versa during the old days of wars between those countries and now affords by its Railroads still readier passage to and from those lands.

It was therefore strategic politically and is so still.

The Koreans have unusual spiritual capacity and a sense of responsibility for passing on to their neighbors what they have received. Already they have established successful missions to the Chinese in Shantung and to the Koreans and Chinese in Manchuria and have gone out into Siberia. It is therefore strategic religiously.

Can you not visualize Korea as a new spiritual center which, in proportion to the extent we develop it, may become the missionary center for N. E. Asia?

## MAKE PLANS

to visit Korea — it is worth knowing  
but plan to stay long enough to get acquainted with it and us.

**CH O S E N**

(the Oriental name)

**K O R E A**

(the Western name)

You can use either name  
and get there

Extent, 90,000 square miles. Equals States of New York and Pennsylvania.

Population, 17,000,000

Its Religions are chiefly Spirit Worship, Buddhism and Confucianism,  
but 300,000 Christians have been developed  
after only 40 years of effort



*(See next page for its capital city.)*



*Within the Palace Walls*

Scenes round  
about  
**SEOUL**



*The East Gate*



*A Street Market*



*As the mountains are round about Jerusalem*



**Its capital is Seoul**

or Keijo (Kāy-jo)

(the Japanese word for capital)

You may call it either when you get there

It is surrounded by hills and is very beautiful

as to location

**Population, 300,000**

**or more**



*A Temple*



*The Roofs of Seoul*





*Oldtime gentleman*



*Oldtime lady with covered head*



*A young sport*



*A coolie*



*A Korean Scholar*



*A New Boy*



*Old time boy already married (see his hat)*



*A happy pair*



*A young woman of the preceding generation*



*School girls of the present day*



*Japanese scene*



*Chinese men and costumes*

It is not land or houses or material things that  
make a nation.

It is PEOPLE that count.

The Korean People are

Not Chinese and

Not Japanese

in their racial peculiarities,  
in their language or  
in their mental viewpoint.

They have a distinct contribution to make to the world

and - -

**The Chosen Christian College**

constitutes an important part of the  
machinery that is to help them do it.



## A bit of History that may surprise you

### Who first made an ironclad boat for fighting purposes?

Perhaps we cannot know, but as far back as 1592 we are told the Koreans, having become desperate at the successes of the Japanese invaders under Hideyoshi, suddenly launched a turtle-shaped boat with a roof covered with iron plates which protected the soldiers and sailors and enabled them to defeat the Japanese Navy.

This seems to be the first record of such an achievement.

### Who built the first suspension bridge?

In the year 1592, during the same war, the Korean general ordered that a bridge be thrown quickly across the Imjin River which is subject to high tides and has a deep mud bottom. It being impossible to build piers for the support of the timbers, necessity as usual developed invention and they threw heavy cables across and anchored them to piles driven into the ground on either side and on these cables laid not only the immediately required bridge, but a foundation of knowledge for future development.

### Some Specimens of the Old Art of Korea

The Koreans were among the earliest makers of fine enamelled porcelain, specimens of which, excavated from old tombs, are surprising connoisseurs today.



A monument to a Korean Seer who lived 37 generations ago. The man beside it is now living and is the 37th lineal descendant of the famous Mr. Kim Yu Sin.



Supposed to be the oldest standing astronomical tower in the world (about 1500 years), showing Chosen Christian College Students studying it on a recent educational tour.

The entrance is about half way up and it seems to have served the purpose of enabling observers lying on its floor to study the stars as they passed across its mouth.

Who invented the art of printing from movable metal type instead of from wooden blocks?

Perhaps we do not know the answer, but we can say that in a room of the British Museum some years ago stood a tripod on which was placed a book with the label, "Korean—the oldest known book in the world printed with movable metal type," and this raises a strong presumption as to who were the first users of this method of printing which revolutionized the art. This was 1337.

Who devised the simplest, the most effective and the most nearly phonetic alphabet known to man?

Until the 15th Century the Koreans used only the Chinese Characters for writing and printing but then their wise King Sejo, realizing that only a few out of all his people could find leisure to learn that very difficult means of writing, called in his literati and ordered them to devise a simpler method, "one that even women could easily learn to use." *That was a severe test of mentality* but the seers met it and produced the simple forms shown below.

VOWELS.

ㅏ a, ㅑ ya, ㅓ o, ㅕ yō, ㅗ ō, ㅛ yō, ㅜ u, ㅠ yu,  
ㅡ eu, ㅣ i, ㅛ a.

CONSONANTS.

ㄱ k, ㅋ m, ㆁ n, ㆁ p, ㄷ r or l, ㅅ s or final t,  
ㄷ t, ㅈ j, ㅊ ng, ㅋ hk, ㆁ hp, ㆁ ht,  
ㅈ tj or ch, and ㅎ h.

*The Korean simple alphabet*

## The Koreans lost

most of their arts and industries and much of their civilization  
because of

Wars, Oppressions, Unjust Government and Idolatry

**But - -**

**Forty years of missionary effort in the advancement of**

Evangelical Religion, Medical Relief and Sanitation,  
and Education

have revived their

**Mental Powers, Spiritual Capacities and Industrial Ambitions**

So that there are now

300,000 CHRISTIANS

who lead in the desire for Education. A considerable number of them already hold such degrees as B.A., B.S., M.A., M.S., Ph.D. and M.D., besides degrees in Engineering of various types, and many have taken degrees in Theology.

**They Are Worth Helping**

The next few pages show

## The Development of Western Education in Korea

Read them in order to understand the uniqueness of the plan and  
the natural sequence of the events.



*From a native school 1890*



*to Graduation class of Chosen Christian College 1924*



## A Brief Story *of* Missionary Educational Development

WESTERN education in Korea has been developed somewhat slowly by the Missions because of the desire to subordinate the education of an unevangelized and non-Christian mass to the production first of a Christian community from which tried men and women could be educated with a better hope of developing them into strong leaders, not only as pastors and teachers, but also in every line of so-called secular activity, for we consider it as important to have educated Christian business and professional men as to have Christian preachers and teachers.

For this reason it has come to pass that the demand for education comes from such a large Christian constituency that, although no ban is put on the admittance of non-Christians, it has just naturally happened that the student bodies of nearly all our schools have been almost entirely Christian. While this has been in many ways advantageous, opportunities have perhaps been lost for the Christianizing of some young men and women of even greater possibilities for service than were found in some of the already Christianized individuals in our schools.

Due, it may be, to a greater realization of this fact, there is now an increasing tendency to admit a proportion of non-Christians who manifest unusual potentialities, hoping, by special attention to the spiritual side of the work, to bring them into vital touch with God through Christ and so avoid the possible losses referred to above.

The following pictures show the development of educational methods and facilities from the early days of missionary work in Korea to the present time when efforts are being made to provide for the more thorough education of some Koreans in all the things that touch their lives, and thus fit them, under the inspiration of Christian teachers and in the atmosphere of vital spirituality, to lead the whole nation to higher things than it has hitherto known.



*The Olden Days*

Korean boys and girls,  
the raw material out of  
which Christianity is  
to help make a worthy  
nation.



*The New Boy*



*A very early Christian School*

The teacher was a converted eunuch without much knowledge, but, feeling within himself the throbbing desire of a man reborn to do some useful service, he gathered together a few children, taught them all he knew, learned something else and taught them that, and so started a movement that has grown to wonderful proportions. His face does not show much intellectuality; he is only one of the little ones of the earth; but perhaps in the eyes of God he may be a giant, *because he started something and did what he could.*



*Improvement has begun*

Every Christian group in the pioneer days established such a school for its children, and in a short time these numbered hundreds and grew even into the thousands, so that, humble though each school was, the total influence on the community was very considerable.





## Primary Schools of a Later Day



Improved facilities, enlarging classes and the changed type of childhood taken from Christian homes and started at an early age in the new life to which Christianity introduces its believers. The boys dearly love a uniform, though it may mean only caps alike.



The boys of Korea are fond of physical exercise, enjoy regular drill and love such sports as baseball and football, which are improving their physical condition and making them capable of quicker thought and more rapid action than their old customs developed in them. These sports are fostered in our Christian schools.



This is not a mob; it is graduation day in a primary school, and the whole community has turned out to see the boys get their diplomas. It would need a rubber building to take them all in. Does not this picture suggest an awakened people, a thirst for knowledge, a demand for new and better possibilities? Have we not here an opportunity to impress upon the nascent minds of a whole nation the truths of God?



An early middle school. How proud the mission was of this! But it soon became too small and was altered and extended to the following.



*Altered and Enlarged  
Middle School*



Other schools of this grade became necessary owing to the rapid growth of the primary schools and the increasing ages of the boys, and so many such are found throughout the land, not only Mission Schools, but other private schools and many Government schools.



## The Time Had Now Come For a College

The needs of the times and the mental capacity of the students called for a college of high grade. To meet this demand The Chosen Christian College was established at the Capital, Seoul, in 1915.

In the interest of efficiency and economy a union institution was decided upon so that all Christian Evangelical Missions in Korea are or may be represented in it.



*Dr. H. G. Underwood*

## Underlying Principles

Building up the Christian character of the students; development of their mental powers; increasing their physical energies; the production of men capable of high aspirations, keen and clear thinking and that quickness of action which will enable them to grapple successfully with all the problems of life and overcome its difficulties, and then, upon this improved spiritual, mental and physical basis, to lead them into the useful vocational lines for which they are best fitted.

At this point we desire to give due credit to the founder Rev. H. G. Underwood, D.D., LL.D., the first President, to whose clear vision and steady perseverance the college owes its existence and the broadness of its conception. It is a pleasure to give a prominent place to his picture. Unfortunately he passed away before its organization, but his ideals largely controlled those who took up his work.



## A Mission Policy

**Our Ultimate Aim**—to make Korea into an Educated Christian Nation that will be a force for Righteousness in the world and for the Extension of the Kingdom.

### Our Method—

A—To produce a large Christian community in Korea that can and will take over from us the responsibility for evangelizing the whole nation, for, please note, *We cannot do it. We can only make a start.*

B—Out of this Christian community to raise up well trained and wise leaders who can and will take our places and *in the end carry on without us.*

C—Out of this group of leaders to give still higher training to those who can become *teachers of preachers, teachers of teachers, teachers of doctors,* and so on.

### The Stages then are—

A—Evangelization by missionaries.

B—Evangelization by missionaries through those whom they have trained.

C—Evangelization by missionaries through those trained by teachers and leaders whom they have trained.

We are already well advanced in Stage A in Korea with our 300,000 Christians.

We are now in the midst of Stage B and the Chosen Christian College will be an important factor in enabling us to complete this part of our work.

Stage C will call for two other parallel efforts:

1. To send some of our best men to selected Universities abroad (that is outside of Korea) that they may be fitted to become Professors in the Chosen Christian College.
2. In due time to advance the standing of the Chosen Christian College to University grade and so make it possible to prepare College Professors in Korea itself in a Christian University and thus ensure to the Church a supply of leaders not only highly educated but soundly Christian, and not only Christian but also thoroughly educated.

Then *our* work will be done. This is the only way by which we can bring our Foreign Mission work to a successful end. It will call for more money now but it will be for a shorter time.

This is the basis on which we ask you to contribute liberally to the support of the Chosen Christian College.

# Organization of the College

Being organized on the University Type we have several departments as below—

## **Biblical Department**

This is not a Theological Seminary but gives Bible courses that prepare men specially for Seminary work and also that fit them to be Sunday School Teachers and Christian Workers in various lines.

## **Literary Department (Liberal Arts)**

For the development of culture and preparatory to the more intimate study of the vocational and professional courses which fit men for the duties of life.

## **Applied Science Department**

*Chemistry*—As applied to the arts and the increasing of production out of which will develop many useful vocations.

*Mathematics and Physics*—Leading to many industrial applications such as Engineering, etc., etc., all of which will mean general advancement in economic standing and progress in the arts of peace.

## **Vocational Courses**

*Agriculture*—In which a thorough training will be given in general farming, forestry, dairying, animal husbandry, etc. As Agriculture is the great industry of the land, it is intended to make this Department contribute to that economical improvement which should follow the development of character and the training of the mind.

*Commerce*—In which this great aid to economic advancement can be taught fully and practically and the principles of honest dealing and high business morality inculcated until the business of the country is done in accordance with the best and highest ideals of Christian people.

*Industries*—Out of which will come teachers who can lead in the lifting up of the whole economic status of the people and bring that degree of temporal prosperity without which men cannot rise much above the brute creation.

*Medical Education is given in The Severance Union Medical College for which see separate booklet.*



## Method of Development

### THE SITE

#### (a) Location

Somewhat away from the distractions and evil influences of a large city, and yet near enough that advantage may be taken of a large city's many opportunities in the way of its special libraries, lectures, musicales, and other helpful entertainments.

#### (b) Size

Large enough to accommodate not only the buildings and activities of the present, but to provide for the distant future; large enough for the development of an Agricultural College with

all its varied branches; for the practical teaching of engineering in all its lines—bridge building, tunnelling, construction work of all kinds, etc.

#### (c) Type

Beautiful in its landscapes, developing the artistic tastes and so not only contributing to the full rounding out of the mental capacities but also elevating the poetic ideas of the students and therefore cultural in its influence.

**The actual site secured is ideal in all these respects.** It consists of hills and valleys running north and south and rising in plateau after plateau toward the north, so that it has throughout a southern exposure. The hills are beautifully wooded with a preponderance of pine trees but with some maples, chestnuts, oaks, etc., while there are enough flat sections for a fine campus, large athletic fields, good residence sites, etc.

It is, roughly speaking, a mile long, and half a mile wide; and, when all the land now in mind is purchased, will have an area of at least three hundred acres, with all types of fields for the teaching of all varieties of agriculture. **So far somewhat more than two hundred acres have been purchased** at a cost of about \$40,000, including twelve thousand large trees and innumerable smaller ones. It



*A view from one of the hills*



*Showing some of its high hills*

## Pure Korean Architecture

(Note the graceful curves and wide eaves)



*Temple*



*Entrance to a royal tomb near the center of the site*



*South Gate of the City*

is three miles from the center of the city, so that it is far enough away to avoid the city's distractions and near enough to gain its advantages.

The main line of railway, connecting with the Trans-Siberian Railway, runs through the lower end of the site and a station is located within a quarter of a mile of its boundaries.

**It has many springs of fine cold water located high up on the hills.** These waters are being collected and piped to the various buildings which are thus supplied by gravity.

**It therefore combines beauty, extent, usability, and suitable location.**

### ARCHITECTURE

Suited to the work to be done, simple and comparatively inexpensive, yet dignified and calculated to develop the artistic sense of the Korean people as well as to be acceptable to them.

Much thought was given to the question of **adapting the beautiful Korean architecture to our needs**, endeavoring to keep its curved lines and yet preserve the roominess and ease of lighting of western educational buildings but insuperable obstacles stood in the way.



*A Summer Pavilion in the Palace*



*Former Emperor's Audience Chamber*

The advantages of the western style of educational buildings in the matter of lighting and inside convenience could be secured only by cutting off the great overhanging eaves, eliminating the beautiful curves and destroying the proportions which are so pleasing to the Koreans. All the efforts thus far made in Korea to utilize the Korean architecture in school and church buildings by modifying it to admit sufficient light and give inside roominess, had resulted only in destroying its beauty and producing an effect disagreeable to the majority of the Koreans, and far from pleasing to the greater number of the Westerners. In addition, large buildings in the Korean style would have been much more costly than those of western architecture.

No Orientals could be prevailed on to vote for the modified Korean type because they took no pleasure in looking at the hybrids erected so far. They felt that the full Korean style did not yield itself to good results from an educational standpoint and so insisted on a purely Western type of building, while the prospective donors of buildings, when they understood that the cost of Korean structures would be from twenty to forty per cent higher than Western types, declined to provide the additional cost.

*The architectural firm of Messrs. Murphy and Dana of New York was retained to advise us as to the layout of the site and provide plans for buildings, and they gave us the style known as Collegiate Gothic, which is proving very pleasing to Koreans and Westerners alike.*



*Modified Korean types already erected in various parts of the country.*

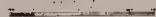


## CONSTRUCTION

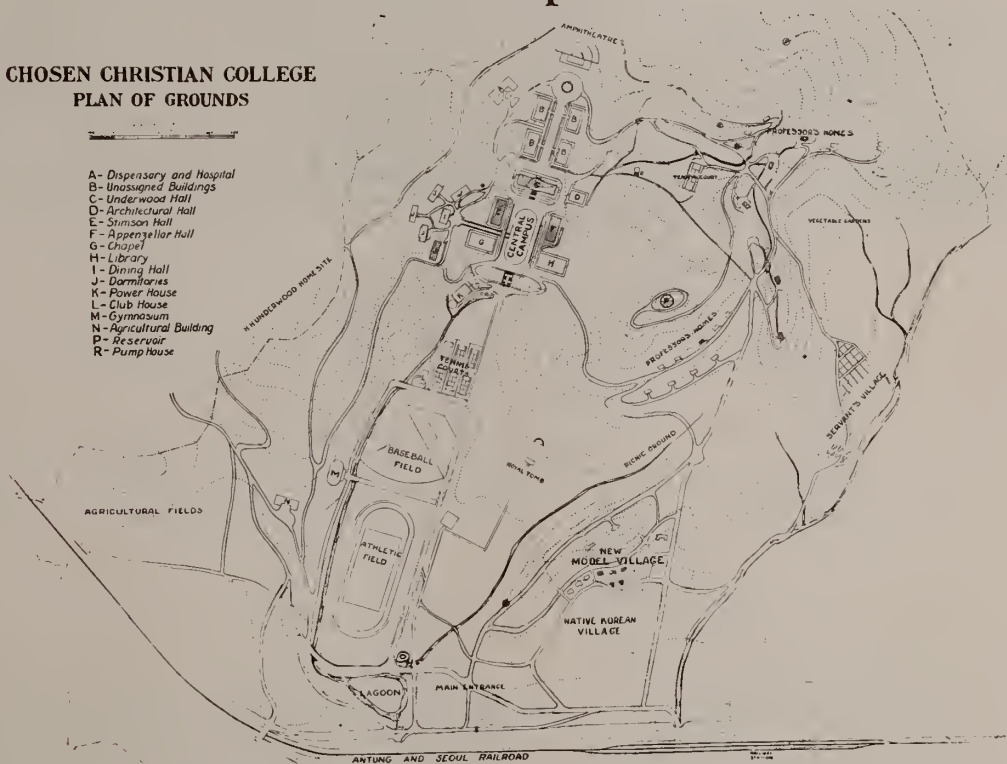
THE buildings are all of stone quarried from the hills of the site, the floors are of reinforced concrete covered with Terazzo or Compes finish, while the roofs are covered with vari-colored cement tile so that they merge into the green foliage of the adjoining pine-clad hills in a most picturesque way.

### Campus

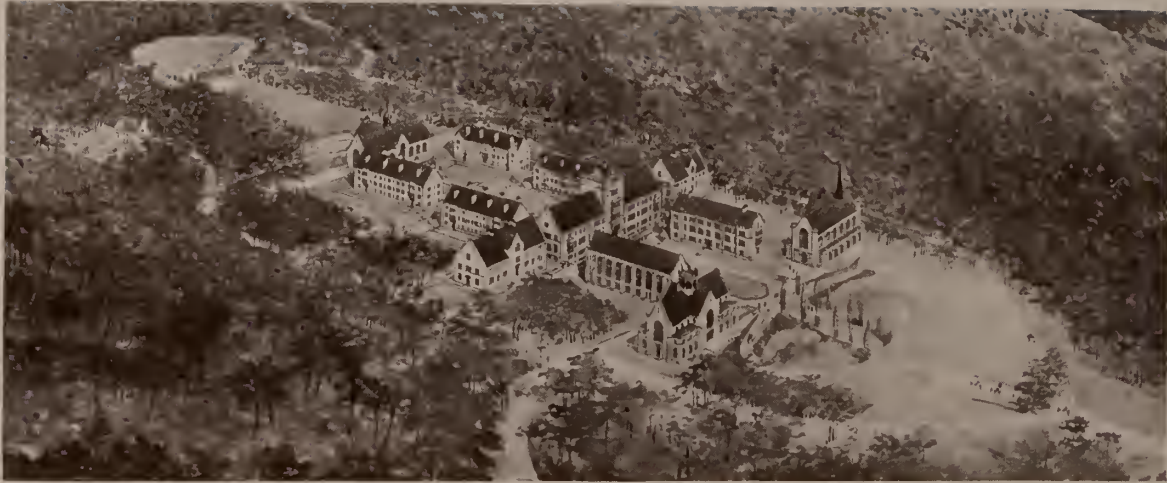
#### CHOSEN CHRISTIAN COLLEGE PLAN OF GROUNDS



- A- Dispensary and Hospital
- B- Unassigned Buildings
- C- Underwood Hall
- D- Architectural Hall
- E- Stimson Hall
- F- Appenzeller Hall
- G- Chapel
- H- Library
- I- Dining Hall
- J- Dormitories
- K- Power House
- L- Club House
- M- Gymnasium
- N- Agricultural Building
- P- Reservoir
- R- Pump house



In developing the campus careful thought was given not only to our present needs but also to the possible needs of the future, each section being laid out so as to leave plenty of room for the addition of new buildings so that the growing institution will always conform to the general plan and in every stage will present the appearance of a complete plant.



*Photo-drawing of a bird's-eye view of the Campus, which, although now somewhat modified, shows sufficiently well what it will look like when it is further advanced in construction.*

*The first group on the Campus will consist of the five buildings forming the lower segment. (See diagram bird's-eye view.)*

*The upper three are completed and in use. They will accomodate 700 to 800 students.*

The one on the left, the Administration Building, was donated by Mr. Charles M. Stimson of Los Angeles and is known as the Charles M. Stimson Building. It houses the offices of the President, the Dean and the Treasurer, and provides a Faculty Room, a small Assembly Room, the general College Offices, and the offices of the Head of Religious and Social Work, who is also in charge of Bible Teaching, the Athletic Director, and the Secretaries of the Y. M. C. A. and the Student Association.



*Charles M. Stimson, Building Administration*



*Appenzeller Hall, Science*



*Underwood Hall, Front Elevation*

of Rev. Horace G. Underwood, D.D., LL.D., the first Protestant Clerical Missionary to Korea and also the founder and first President of the Institution, erected by his brother Mr. John T. Underwood, of the Underwood Typewriter Company. It crosses the Campus above the other two buildings, but has a large open archway in its central tower, through which a vista of the hills and trees behind may be obtained as the visitor approaches it. Its central tower adds beauty and dignity to the group. It is devoted to recitation rooms mainly, although the manual training rooms in the basement, and the art and music rooms in the tower will add that touch of practical life and that flavor of art which will proclaim the combination of the practical and ideal in education which is a feature of the College scheme.

Of the two front corner buildings, the one on the left is to be erected from funds contributed by the Methodist Episcopal Church, and will be a combination of Chapel and Assembly Hall with rooms for general College activities, such as Y. M. C. A. and other club rooms, thus giving evidence of our belief in the practical character of religion which is intended to permeate the whole life of the College, spiritual, physical and mental.

The erection of this will come in due time and it will be one of the main features of the Campus; its design has not yet been decided upon.

At the right-hand corner will rise the library, museum, and Fine Arts Building, which will finish the first group and provide that last touch of cultural opportunity which will add so much to the all-round development of those who prepare themselves in this college for the work of life. The funds for this building which should be large and dignified in its design, have not yet been contributed and here is afforded an opportunity for some generous donor who can realize in its structure his own appreciation of the true value of this feature of a college. It has not yet been designed.

The building opposite the above, the funds for which were provided mainly by the First Methodist Episcopal Church of Pittsfield, Massachusetts, is the Science Building, known as Appenzeller Hall in memory of Rev. H. G. Appenzeller, first Methodist Episcopal missionary to Korea. It houses the laboratories and lecture rooms for Physics, Biology and Chemistry.

When further development calls for more room for those branches, additional buildings will be added for the separate sciences as shown on the diagram.

The third and largest building of the three so far erected is Underwood Hall, a memorial to the labors

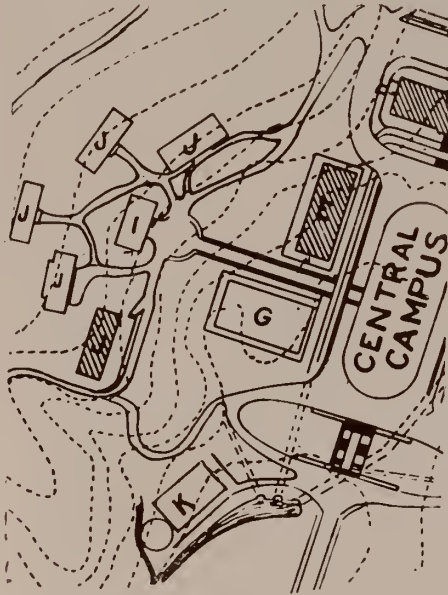


*Underwood Hall, Rear Elevation*





*Dormitory No. 1*



*Diagram of Dormitory Group*

- I—Central Dining Hall
- J—(Dark lines) Dormitory in use
- J-J-J—No lines, Dormitories to be built

## Dormitories

The dormitories are located on the hills west of the College Campus, nestling among the trees in small units which can be more easily controlled and are less institutional in their character than would be the case in a system of large halls. A group of from four to eight buildings with sleeping accommodations for about sixty each will surround a central dining hall to seat from two hundred to four hundred, so arranged that different styles of meals can be served to different groups of students according to the price they wish to pay for their board. Provision will also be made in this for bathing facilities and for social life.

Nothing is more important to the healthy moral tone of the students than the type of dormitory life that is provided, and donors of these buildings may feel that they are contributing to a most important feature of the College.

## The Unique Model Village Feature

ONE of the sad and unfortunate sides of our educational work in the Orient has been the fact that schools have been planned for the education of young men without reference to whether they were married or single, and for only unmarried young women. As a majority of the young men are married at an early age the result has been to leave the young wives of our students without any education, so that, after a separation of years, the educated young men go home to ignorant wives and the equilibrium of the home is manifestly disturbed.

To overcome this great disability, we are breaking away from the usual dormitory system so far as to include a group of small Korean houses, which will constitute a Korean village, and any married student who desires to do so may rent one of these for the use of himself and family so as to obviate a long separation.

In this village we have planned for a school for students' wives where they may achieve as much education as is possible under the circumstances, so that when the husbands have completed their courses their wives will be real companions and

helpers. A primary school for their children is also included.

We further propose to make this a "model village" and an object lesson to the students in many ways, of which the following are now in mind:—

Proper methods of laying out a small town.

Methods of constructing streets that can be kept drained and clean.

Best methods of sanitation that can be adapted to Korean conditions in various parts of the country.

Improved methods of constructing houses so as to make them easier to ventilate, keep free from vermin, etc.

Planning and construction of a primary school building, in which the married students' children may receive teaching.

Model Korean church, the architecture of which may be suggestive to students when they go out into their several fields and where

the life of the Collge may be connected up with that of the neighborhood.

Methods of municipal government as applied to towns and villages and in accord with the laws governing the country.





*Model village with old Korean village in front*

We should at once build several more cottages and several Korean teachers' homes in order to make a beginning with the very promising experiment in educating whole families and establishing Christian homes in which the equilibrium is maintained.

Other village buildings will be a bank, a market, some stores, a primary school, a school for wives, etc., so that the experiment of giving an education in practical living in an improved way may have a chance to be effective.



*Junior Teachers' Homes*



*Junior Teachers' Homes*





## Homes for Professors

**F**OLLOWING the road back from the Model Village, the first hill to the right has been set aside for the President's residence, not yet provided, and on the hillside to the left will be the homes for Japanese and Korean professors, one of which is already erected, while still farther back on the hills there are already five foreign teachers' homes. However, no discrimination will be made on account of race in assigning sites. These are all equally open to all.

The style adopted for the larger houses is that of one-and-a-half story bungalows which nestle in amongst the hills and trees, giving that cozy effect which is so desirable in a site of this type. They are built of stone similar to that used in the main College buildings.

The smaller houses so far have been built of brick stuccoed with rough cement plaster, and are both serviceable and attractive.





*Agricultural Hall*

**T**HE Agricultural Hall was the first building to be erected, to be used temporarily as a general recitation hall. It is located on the slope of a western hill near the agricultural section of the site, and will afford facilities for the special agricultural laboratories, museum, etc., together with class rooms and offices. The provision of a separate

building for this Department emphasizes the view held by the College authorities of the importance of this aspect of the work.

This Department will afford opportunity to introduce various other industrial features related to it and offer channels for self help to students who may need it. The hills and valleys, with their varied soils and aspects, give opportunity for great diversity in agricultural pursuits and teaching.

Afforestation will be stressed because of its great value to Korea whose hills have been denuded of trees for fuel.

The few photos of actual farming conditions shown here make very plain the need for agricultural education. As this is the largest industry of the country, improvement at this point will have an immense effect on the economic condition of Korea, and enable general education and culture to extend more rapidly. **More than 12,000,000 of the 17,000,000 people are dependent on farming for a livelihood.**

Anything that will grow in temperate and semi-tropical climates can be successfully cultivated here—cereals, root crops, fruits, etc.



*The opening of the Agricultural Department awaits that increase in our budget which will make it possible.*



*Plowing*



*A Native Sawmill*



*Threshing*





*One of the winning teams at meet of Middle Schools.*

**C**OLLEGE ATHLETICS have not been neglected in the plans of the Field Board of Managers and the Faculty. About ten acres of level ground in the very center of the site lends itself to easy preparation for games of all sorts, and this will be improved to keep pace with the growth of the student body.



*An Athletic Meet at the College Field where representatives of many Middle Schools met at the invitation of the College to compete for honors.*

The Korean youth soon becomes an athlete and excels in baseball, football, tennis, basketball and all field sports, as well as in the indoor activities of a gymnasium.

A stream of clear water runs down one side of the Athletic Field, making it easy to provide an outdoor swimming pool for summer use. In the near future, it is hoped, funds for a gymnasium which will include an indoor pool will be contributed.



*A Game of Baseball*



*Y. M. C. A. Class in Fencing*

## The Spiritual Side of College Work

**Education that recognizes only the material forces of nature** has advantages over ignorance in that it develops the power to raise economic conditions to a higher level and so adds to the comfort and material pleasures of the people,

**But** it may prove a great danger to the social welfare.

*Increased power without a corresponding increase in spiritual ideals and without high character* adds enormously to the power of the unscrupulous and selfish.

*Advanced chemical knowledge* makes poison gas bombs a possibility, and, unless the possessors of that knowledge have an offsetting Christian idealism, the world will suffer.

*Advanced chemical knowledge with an unselfish devotion to the best interests of mankind* has made possible the discovery and utilization of Insulin, the conqueror of the heretofore fatal Diabetes.

### Therefore

*The Chosen Christian College* has no interest in Higher Education except as it is combined and interwoven with the development of high character through contact with God, the Father, through His Son, Jesus Christ.

### To This End

Every officer of the Institution is Christian, and every teacher regularly on the staff is Christian.

Every department of the College has Bible study in its curriculum.

Every student takes these courses as a regular part of his work and his examinations on them form one of the deciding factors in his standing.

A daily devotional period impresses both teachers and students with the need to bring God into their daily lives and to rely on Him for guidance and strength.

A missionary professor in cooperation with a Korean professor, assisted by a Committee of teachers and students, regulates all the religious activities of the students and secures their participation in the work of churches and Sunday schools in surrounding districts.

An active Y. M. C. A. functions and largely controls the Athletic and other extra-curriculum Activities.

At least once a year a week is given up entirely to a religious conference, all studies other than Biblical being suspended and all the hours of the curriculum being devoted to the furtherance of the spiritual growth of faculty and students.

The purpose of the College is set forth in Article II of the Constitution:

### **Article II. Object**

"The object of this Hojin shall be to establish and maintain this College in accordance with Christian principles.

The means by which this great aim is to be accomplished are provided in Article VI, which states:

### **Article VI. Managers**

"The Managers, Officers, Members of the Faculties and all the instructors must be believers in and followers of the doctrines contained in the Christian Bible."

All, therefore, depends on how well these articles of the Constitution are carried out.



One of the chief influences of the College comes from the fine social friendships formed between the missionaries and the people. Here Bishop and Mrs. Welch with Prof. and Mrs. Billings and a group of Korean gentlemen are being delightfully entertained at the home of Marquis Pak and his wife.

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**for Christian Education in Chosen representing**  
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The Presbyterian Church in the U. S. A.

The Methodist Episcopal Church South  
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Other assistants are on the staffs.

